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REQUIRED READING FOR JUNE.

HOW TO LIVE.

BY EDWARD EVERETT HALE.

HOW TO DRESS.

I am relieved from the most difficult necessities of this paper, because in the current volume of THE CHAUTAUQUAN Miss Ward has treated so fully the most important details of the subject, and has given so many directions which will prove their own value. I need not, even by way of illustration, allude to such details again, and I gladly refer my readers to her treatment of them. Our discussion will be more general, and may be confined chiefly to considering the comparative expense of dress, and the amount of thought and care to be given to it, and such considerations will require some view of the importance of fashion as a factor in society, and indeed of dress, as a test in the comparisons of civilization.

I. I wish I could make the young people of the present day read Carlyle's "Sartor Resartus," but I have at last given up the effort. Everything that is good in "Sartor Resartus" has been borrowed and borrowed, and used in other literature so abundantly, that when young people come to the book itself, which in its day was thought so bright and fresh, they find its doctrine common-place and its wit strained or exaggerated. The words "Sartor Resartus," mean a "Tailor patched." The original idea of Carlyle seems to have been to write an amusing satire upon the shams of modern life, by showing that the various forms of social life, are but as so many garments, of which the fashion can be changed at will. He would have been glad to work out in this way, directly or indirectly, the suggestion that what can be changed so easily cannot be essential or fundamental, that the foundation of life is deeper than its costume, and that men are much better employed in studying the foundations than they are in regulating the outside. But Carlyle had not far advanced in the papers, which were published serially, before he had engaged himself so seriously in the grave discussions, which were to decide what the fundamentals are and how they are to be found, that he became careless about the amusing details of dress and its accidents, which he had meant to make the frame-work of the book all through. When he returns to it, the reader is puzzled and

annoyed, and wishes it was not there, that he might follow, without interruption, the memoir of Teufelsdröckh, around which the philosophy of the book really forms itself. He finally forgets that he and the author started with the clothes-philosophy.

None the less do I refer to it here, because we need to begin by remembering, as Mr. Carlyle bids, that it is in one mood that we determine on the realities of life, and in quite another that we adjust the details of its forms or of its costume. That is no accident by which, when we transfer the words which deal with the manufacture of clothing, to use them for analogies with other arts, we always imply blame. A tailor, a shoemaker, a milliner, are people who are subduing the world as loyally as any other workmen. A tailor's work in itself considered, is as noble, as he conquers matter, as is that by which a farmer conquers matter. The work is as brave and true, in the one case, as in another. But so great is the danger of the misapplication of such work, in the manufacture of this or that folly of costume, that to say of a bit of writing that it is "a piece of millinery" is dispraise. Such a writer as Shakspeare will allude to "tailors and cobblers" as if they are necessarily unable to enter on serious discussion. All this means, Mr. Carlyle would say, that man will not regard the forms of things, as of so much value as the things themselves, and his "clothes-philosophy" is an attempt to make them remember and acknowledge this.

The discussion of dress should come into serious papers on the conduct of life, because we must determine for ourselves, how far, in the conduct of life we will be swayed in the non-essentials by the discussions of other people, and how far we will undertake to regulate those decisions, or at the least, to take a part in them. These papers do not treat the question "how to hoe potatoes" or "how to fire an engine." Yet there is a good way and a bad way to fire an engine, and to hoe potatoes. The good way or the bad way, however, may be learned best by an individual with the coal shovel or the hoe in his hand, and hardly depends on any principle of his own life, which he should have found by

study, observation, determination, and prayer. In regulating dress, on the other hand, we are acting, first, for other people as well as ourselves. My friends see my clothes much more than I do, and my neatness or elegance affects them, at the first blush, much more than either does me. More than this, the general decision of the world, on the matter of costume, has a great deal to do with the economies of my costume. The lady who should set out to-day to clothe herself in "samite wonderful," because ladies were clothed in it, in the days of King Arthur, would have a long career of "shopping" before her. "No, Miss, we have no samite in stock, plenty of gingham and calico, Miss, but no samite." Probably she must dress in what the shops will furnish. It is worth while, at all events, for her to know where her individual determination to wear samite must stop, and how far the quest for it may carry her.

If it be safe to digest from the "Sartor Resartus" twenty lines of truth, for readers who will not read the book, because it was written fifty years ago, the following lines may be taken as an experiment in that way. Man cannot go naked, decency forbids, and in the parts of the world best adapted for living, the climate forbids. Man must be clothed. The daily work of a great number of men and women will be enlisted in the making of clothes for all. In savage life, each person makes his own clothes. In civilized life, work is subdivided, fewer persons are engaged, and the clothing becomes more uniform. So the man is warmed, and can go about his daily affairs easily, and presents an agreeable aspect to those who look on, without stopping himself to make the materials of his clothes, without cutting them out, and without sewing them together. Practically the clothing is almost all which the observer sees of the man. His face and hands are but a small part of his person. But let no man be deceived by this, into thinking that the clothes are the man. And, of the larger man, of the human family, which is one body, of which we are the members, let no man be deceived into thinking that its clothes are the body. The body has its own life, and we must not regard the fashion of its dress as more important than the realities of the life.

Whether for society, or for the man himself, this lesson of the "clothes-philosophy" is worth remembering.

I determine then that my dress shall be a secondary consideration, though an important one. I will not be a slave to it, more than I am to appetite. But I will not offend my neighbors by what is a trifle in the comparison with fundamental realities. I may have to add the determination, that, so far as my share goes, I will add to the harmony and elegance of the rooms I am in, as I would have a good picture on the wall, in place of a bad one, if it were in my power. To carry out that illustration, I should be a fool, if when I stopped at an inn, for an hour, I spent my time in improving the pictures on the wall of the reception room. It may be that the time I spend on my adornment for an hour is as badly wasted. I must have some principles which will determine what is legitimate, and what is waste.

II. Now, here, what has been said on the regulation of expense, is to be considered in the determination of the proportion of expense which shall be given to dress. We have tried to show how far the true man and woman, in regulating the use of his income may or ought to economize in the purchase of his food. In that determination the elements are more simple than they are in his choice of his dress. His choice of food affects himself and no one else. Strictly speaking, if he eat enough good food to keep him in health, no one else need interfere with his selection. But I must

dress so that I shall not offend certain requisitions of the society in which I live. I must not go to an evening party in a dress which shall be offensive to my host or to the greater part of the guests whom I meet there. As we go on, we shall see that this condition acts in such ways that it cannot be avoided.

It is to be observed also that the expenditure for dress of the people who live in our modern world, is a much smaller part of their expenditure than is that for subsistence. The cost of a man's subsistence, ranges, it seems, in America, from 41 per cent of his expenditure, which is the average cost in Illinois, to 63 per cent, which is the highest of the averages reported in different years in Massachusetts. In the matter of subsistence then, a half or two thirds of one's expenditure is determined. But, on the average, the clothing of a man or woman only takes sixteen per cent of his expenditure or hers, in the favorable conditions of Massachusetts, where clothing and the materials for it are cheap, being produced in large factories established for the purpose. Even in Illinois, where the conditions for the cheapest clothing are not so favorable, the average cost of clothing is only twenty-one per cent of the expenditure. It seems desirable to call attention to these limitations, because in practice, where people find retrenchment in expense necessary, they are always tempted to reduce the cost of their clothing, with a kind of superstitious feeling, that they are already living on the minimum ration of food which is possible. It will prove, in many instances, that the reform of expenditure should be effected at just the other end. Many a girl makes herself miserable by giving up her new ribbons or a new dress, who could save her money to much more advantage by giving up her candies, her chocolates, her maple sugar, and other such dainties.

Indeed, if I am to give a practical rule, which will save a deal of trouble, and will generally, though not always work well, I should say that, generally, a person had better accept the ratio which the experience of his neighbors has assigned for this department of expense, and not try, single-handed, to alter it. If you live in Massachusetts, set aside sixteen per cent of expenditure for the dress of your family, if in Illinois, twenty per cent. Accept this, as what has come about in the order of manufacture and trade and do not waste weeks of time and care and discomfort in the effort to save five dollars by fighting against this law. On the other hand, do not go beyond it. Be sure that by your care of your clothing, by your neatness and simplicity you make the dress you wear answer its purpose, and keep within the rule.

The best adviser whom I have consulted on the economics of dress, after referring me to admirable articles which will be found in the journals of milliners and clothiers, and also to some clever little hand-books easily obtained at the book-shops, says that in the matter of economy in dress, people are apt to neglect one important consideration. They should make their plans for three or four years and not for one. A man's overcoat, the garment which a woman wears for the same purpose, furs, arctics, under clothing, are bought not for twelve months but for a longer period. And my adviser says "Your pupils will come into trouble if they buy clothing simply for this year as if there were never to be any 1887. That year will certainly come, and the plan for clothing must be made broad enough to cover it. We cannot wear our old clothes always, as Mr. Thoreau bids us, but on the other hand, much of our clothing must be bought with reference to long usefulness. Impress upon them all the necessity of constant care of their clothing. The question whether a coat lasts two hundred days or one hundred and

fifty is determined simply by the care with which it is kept."

III. Shall I contend against the fashion or submit to it?

If the fashion tampers with the health, you must stand against it. But this is not apt to happen. It does not happen nearly so often as the careless writers say. Fashion in most instances, follows some general law, and is justified by considerations which do not at first present themselves. "Let us not treat fashion too gravely, nor let us magnify its inevitable importance by railing at it. In its essence, it is not a disease to be eradicated; it is rather a passion of the human soul, liable like all passions to constant abuse, which must be regulated, and exercised in due balance with the other forces which go to make our life." These are the words of Mr. William Weeden, who has had the opportunity, which only a great manufacturer of textiles has, to know the dispositions of fashion year by year. He says, again:

"The devotees of fashion are voluntary pioneers—the few who explore the new possibilities of dress and freely give to the slow and sober many the benefit of their dearly bought experience. For example, remember the impression we all received from the long ulster overcoat when it first appeared on the fops a few years since. It seemed to be a preposterous caricature of a garment. But we soon found our conservative notion was a mistake ingrained by the custom of short coats. Now these garments are common as any, adapted in price to the means of car drivers and laborers, as well as of the dandies who introduced them; and they afford a comfort needed in the fickle fierceness of our climate."

Here is a fair illustration of the value of fashion in the line of preserving health. The same may be said, on the whole, of the compulsion of fashion in making women wear thick shoes and boots. It must be confessed that at the same time, fashion ruins their gait and indeed abridges their exercise by lifting the heel absurdly. But, as has been said, the questions of detail are not to be discussed here. So far as women's dress is concerned, the questions regarding health in the dress of women are so well discussed by Miss Woolson and others, in what is the standard treatise on dress reform, that I will not attempt them in detail. People who want to study the subject must obtain Lady Habberton's tracts and papers also.

IV. Mr. Emerson's verdict on American dress is interesting, as coming from an unprejudiced observer, quite willing to tell the whole truth, and whoever is tempted to make repression the only rule in the management of costume, should note what he says of the effect of dress in "levelling up" the person who has been used to mean apparel. Mr. Emerson says:—

"One word or two in regard to dress, in which our civilization instantly shows itself. No nation is dressed with more good sense than ours, and everybody sees certain moral benefit in it. When the young European emigrant, after a summer's labor, puts on for the first time a new coat, he puts on much more. His good and becoming clothes put him on thinking that he must behave like people who are so dressed; and silently and steadily his behavior mends. But quite another class of our own youth, I should remind of dress in general, that some people need it and others need it not. Thus a king or a general does not need a fine coat, and a commanding person may save himself all solicitude on that point. There are always slovens in State street or Wall street, who are not less considered. If a man have manners and talent, he may dress roughly and carelessly. It is only when mind and character slumber that the dress can be seen.

If the intellect were always awake, and every noble sentiment, the man might go in huckaback or mats, and his dress would be admired and imitated. Remember George Herbert's maxim, "This coat with my discretion will be brave." If, however, a man has not firm nerves, and has keen sensibility, it is perhaps a wise economy to go to a good shop and dress himself irreproachably. He can then dismiss all care from his mind, and may easily find that performance an addition of confidence, a fortification that turns the scale in social encounters, and allows him to go gayly into conversation where else he had been dry and embarrassed. I am not ignorant. I have heard with admiring submission the experience of the lady who declared 'that the sense of being perfectly well dressed gives a feeling of inward tranquillity which religion is powerless to bestow'."

This is to be remembered as a corrective, whenever some preposterous fashion, like that which slaughters fourteen million song birds in a year for women's hats, makes the prophets speak of the law of "dress" as wicked in itself. To quote Mr. Weeden again: The stimulus given in all classes by the fashion "is the one social stimulus most profound in its source and most far reaching in its effects. Better culture makes the home the center of social ambition and surrounds it with the fruits of personal sacrifice, including the offerings of dress and personal adornment. But in the early stages of individual growth there is no principle of social emulation so potent in the average man and woman, as the desire 'to look like folks.'"

V. All that we have said thus far may be considered equally by men or women. In the philippics of the press and pulpit on the follies of fashion, women generally receive the brunt of the attack in our day. In such absurdities as this of the song birds, they certainly deserve it. But it is probable that taking the world in general, the passion for good dress is quite as strong with men as with women. It certainly shows itself more among men than among women in savage tribes, where by virtue of their superior force, men are more apt to have their own way than they are in countries which have attained some share of Christian civilization. Speaking of civilized fashions, Mr. Weeden says, "There is never absent from our present apparel, a slight sex relationship and this expresses itself very curiously. A new color in male garments is now almost always introduced by imitating a feminine fashion. But I have never known the ladies to take a color from our side. On the other hand forms of garments seem to be more essentially masculine and to be often copied by feminine taste. The billycock hat, peajacket or roundabout, long ulster coat, and buttoned gaiter boot, the stiff linen collar with cravat, the riding hat, and other ladies' fashions which will suggest themselves, are adopted from the male costume. I remember no instance in our time where men have borrowed a form from their sisters."

Perhaps the whole matter may be abridged in a single remark of his. He says that "the draperies of Phidias have clothed the human form forever and admit of no change or improvement. But if these be the epics of history and culture, the woman of the time, the perfectly dressed lady is the lyric of her own period and breathes forth the best expression that time is capable of. Color softens form, and we can have social color only from instantaneous and changing life. That indescribable something, that grace more beautiful than beauty, will utter itself only in the well-bred lady, and she will be well dressed because she is well-bred."

VI. There is one detail which cannot be passed by in any consideration of the general subject of dress, which did not come into the range of topics which Miss Ward discussed in

her article. She had no occasion to refer to the questions regarding "mourning" and its place in the customs of Christian civilization.

It can hardly be denied, that a person in great grief, for the recent death of a friend, will wish to apprise other persons whom he meets, that he has suffered such a bereavement, by some sign readily noticed at the first meeting. There are a hundred good reasons why such a signal should be given, and those who give it and those who profit by it have an equal interest in preserving customs by which such a signal is given. Such signals are given in dresses which bear the signs called "mourning."

When this has been said, however, probably all has been said, on which this custom of "mourning" can rest, if it is to be tested by its utility. Probably, also, it cannot be urged that the origin of the custom is to be found in the simple wish to give such visible sign of sorrow. The origin of the custom is to be found in the self-humiliation, which wore sack-cloth and scattered ashes on the head, when one was conscious of sin and wished to acknowledge the wrath of a supreme God, before whom he would not even appear to contend. In such a mortification and confession of failure came in the custom, of which the only relic now is to be found in the mourning habiliments worn on occasions of sorrow.

It must, however, be thoughtfully remembered by people who are attempting to guide social life under Christian agencies and principles, that with the Life and Light of the Gospel, no such view of death remains, as is intimated in these customs of a savage religion. We do not now regard the death of a friend as a punishment imposed by God on any folly or frailty of ours. Often we regard it as promotion to a higher field of service, always we believe it is ordered in a Providence which understands life much better than we do. We submit to that Providence, and do not measure our wishes against its conclusions. We do not wish therefore

to wear sack-cloth in token of our wickedness or failure, or as a confession that we have struck our colors, in a contest where we have been in the wrong.

Reserving then the right to ourselves, to indicate by quietness of costume, or by some badge easily understood, that we have suffered loss by the death of a friend, perhaps that we do not want to be asked to go into scenes of special gayety or excitement, we must, in consistency, carry this custom of "mourning" but very little further, from mere deference to the habit of the community. If that habit comes, as it certainly does, in the case of "mourning," from a lower notion of religion than ours, it is our business to modify it and improve it. This we do best, not by writing essays about it, but by abstaining, when occasion comes, from any change of costume, excepting such as shall give to friends the immediate intimation, to which they are entitled, that we have sustained a bereavement.

Any thoughtful person who leads the social customs or opinions of the town in which he lives, will find ample reason for considering this duty very carefully. The expense which is thrown on the poor by the custom of "mourning" at the very moment when the expense of sickness and death is hardest to bear, is a very serious matter in the economics of those to whom economy is a difficult business. The lead given by five of the ladies of the town most highly considered, is the lead which will be followed by five thousand of the people who have least money to spend on black crape and other "luxuries of woe." Even if one's personal wish, at the time of bereavement, would be to drift with the current, to let one's friends "do what they choose about dress, if only they will let me alone," still there is a duty to the public of the place in which you live. That duty is to restrict to the very smallest conditions the tokens of "mourning" which you place on your costumes as an indication that you have lost a friend by death.

HOME STUDIES IN PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

BY FELIX L. OSWALD, M. D.

CHAPTER V.

THE FRIGID ZONE.

In the northern hemisphere the borders of the polar zone nearly coincide with a line that marks the northern limits of arboreal vegetation, and where the sixtieth parallel of northern latitude crosses the plains of Siberia we still find forests of larch, birch, fir, poplar, and Tartar maple. The silver fir is seen as far north as latitude 62°; but three degrees further north only a dwarf birch and a species of trailing cedar are able to brave the horrors of the winter season.

ARCTIC VEGETATION.

Fifty miles further bring us to the region of mosses and whortleberries, where even the trailing cedar cannot maintain itself in the open plain, though in sheltered glens it is occasionally found near the line of the sixty-sixth parallel. Owing to unknown, and possibly geological causes, the tree-line appears to recede towards the equator. Greenland, now a frightful ice waste, seems once to have been habitable up to Disco Island and Cape Dan, where the old Normans had prosperous settlements.

CENTERS OF COLD.

Compared with countries of the northern continent even the north of Greenland has, however, a comparatively temperate climate, for the centers of the lowest temperature are not found at the pole, but nearly twenty degrees further south in the northeastern part of the great Siberian table-

land, where the *average* temperature of the first month in the year is forty degrees below zero. On the evidence of numerous experiments confirmed by the testimony of unimpeachable scientific authorities, we must believe that in a district a little northeast of the village of Krasnoi on the Lena River, there is a region where for eight months in each year the ground remains frozen to a depth of *one hundred feet*. The storms that sometimes accompany the severest frosts, are described as absolutely unendurable in the open air; they pierce all the covers of fur which a man of ordinary strength is able to carry on his body, and almost prevent respiration. At a station near Irkutsk, not much further north than the city of London, Pumpelly¹ once saw the thermometer at 70° below zero. In the delta of the Kolyma River a lake nearly twenty feet deep freezes to the bottom in September and rarely thaws before June.

MILD NORTHERN CLIMATES.

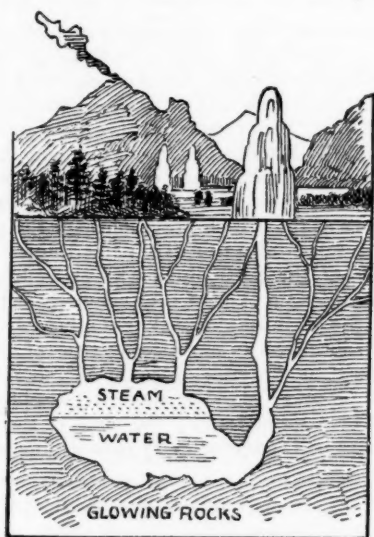
A striking contrast with this excessive climate, forms that of the coast lands of the northeastern Atlantic. At Ustyansk, Siberia, latitude 70° 55' N., the mean annual temperature is 15° F. At the North Cape of Norway, latitude 70° 65' N. it is 32° F. Anywhere south of Upsala, latitude 60°, wheat and orchard trees amply repay the labor of cultivation. Under the corresponding latitudes of Kamchatka even the hardiest varieties of rye and oats cease to be productive. Northern Denmark is warmer than any part of southern Canada, and

in the Orkney Islands snow rarely stays longer than a week on the ground. But the mildest climate in proportion to the height of latitude, is found on the island of Iceland on the borders of the arctic circle—i. e., more than a thousand miles further north than the north end of Maine. Scandinavian chronicles record the fact that A. D. 820, when Iceland was discovered by a Norwegian pirate, the plains of the western and southern coast were covered with stately forests, and there is nothing in the present climate of the island to contradict that tradition. Winter storms are frequent, but they are vapor-laden sea winds, and the average winter temperature is 29° to 30° F.



Arctic Currents. C: cold. W: warm.

Iceland contains some forty thousand square miles, about as much as the state of Ohio, and the warmest regions of this area are on the west coast blessed with the direct influx of the Gulf Stream, while the coldest districts are on the opposite shore exposed to the chill northeast wind of the Arctic Ocean. Nearly twelve hundred miles further north than the frozen north shore of Michigan, potatoes and garden vegetables are successfully cultivated. The last agricultural census estimates the arable land at four hundred thousand acres. There are six hundred thousand sheep, twenty thousand horses, and twenty-four thousand horned cattle, besides large herds of half-wild reindeer. In Reikiavik under



Iceland Geysers.

the parallel of the Slave Lake country, with its population of silver-gray owls and polar foxes, the Icelanders have a university with a museum and a collection of national antiquities. Besides the sea winds and the Gulf Stream they

have another source of warmth—a chain of volcanoes, geysers, and smoke-fissures, emitting blasts of hot air that temper the atmosphere for miles around. Of the thirty or forty basalt craters, eight have been active within this century.

POLAR VOLCANOES.

The distribution of volcanoes shows a remarkable linear arrangement. The active craters of our Pacific slope form a long chain running nearly due north and south. Those of Eastern Asia appear in a series of islands ranged in a row from Japan to the Sunda Archipelago. As the active volcano of Jan Mayen,³ latitude 70° N., is in line with the chain of the Iceland craters, it has been suggested that other volcanic islands may be found still further north which will explain the phenomenon of the open polar sea which Wrangel⁴ and Chamisso⁵ saw four hundred miles north of the Siberian coast, and Kane's⁶ companions from the north capes of Grinnell Land, latitude 81° 35' N.

DAY AND NIGHT AT THE POLES.

At the equator day and night are of equal length the year round; but as we approach the higher latitudes the difference between the longest and the shortest day increases, till at a distance of 23½ degrees from either pole we reach a line where on the two longest days the sun does not set for forty-eight hours, while it does not rise during the two longest nights. This line marks the borders of the frigid zone. Still nearer the poles, the difference between the length of summer and winter days continues to increase, till at the points of the greatest distance from the equator the year is divided into a day and a night, each of one hundred eighty-two days and fifteen hours. In other words, at the poles each day lasts half a year and alternates with a night of the same length; so that both at the equator and at the poles the sun rises and sets at the same hours. But while at the equator it reaches the zenith every noon, even the middle of the long polar day resembles the early morning hours of the lower latitudes; the shadows slowly lengthen and shorten as the sun wheels from north to south.

DISTRIBUTION OF LIGHT.

Still it is a curious fact that in those abodes of frost and terror, called the polar regions, there is actually less absolute darkness than in the tropics. For several weeks before and after the long summer day of the poles, the sun, though it does not appear above the horizon, approaches it near enough to produce a bright twilight often resembling that of a lightly clouded winter day in the temperate zone. Besides, the snow of the arctic regions reflects all rays, from whatever source, so distinctly that it seems to shine with a light of its own. In clear nights, especially near the time of the equinoxes, a luminous arch known as the aurora borealis or northern light, (though *polar light* would be more correct)



Polar Night.

is seen in the direction of the poles, and gradually emits streams of darting rays, often shooting up to the zenith and illuminating the earth with a brilliancy surpassing that

of the full moon. Towards morning the arc dissolves into pale, nebular spots which soon fade in the dawn.

POLAR LIGHTS.

The phenomenon of polar lights is frequently observed in the higher latitudes both of the southern and northern hemispheres, now and then in the temperate zones, and, though very rarely, even in the tropics. It is always accompanied by a disturbance of the magnetic needle, and is supposed to be caused by a discharge of terrestrial electricity. Once in eleven years the displays of the polar aurora are especially brilliant, and it has been shown that this period corresponds with the appearance of certain spots in the sun—our source of light, and possibly also of electric energy. It has also been proved that auroras are often seen simultaneously in the polar regions of both hemispheres, but it is a remarkable circumstance that the centers of the greatest frequency do not coincide with the poles, but are different stations, even in the same latitude. One of these centers is near the northeast end of Siberia, latitude 71° — 73° N., another on Hudson's Bay fifteen degrees further south. By the light of these electric torches the inhabitants of the polar regions travel, fish, and hunt; it serves them as a supplementary moon, and shortens their periods of absolute darkness to forty or fifty nights in the year. It thus helps to make large areas of the polar zones more habitable.

THE ANTARCTIC ZONE.

As the regions of the antarctic circle are much colder than the corresponding latitudes of the northern hemisphere, the southern Shetlands, Louis Philippe Land, and the coasts of the antarctic continent are the abodes of utter desolation, and Terra del Fuego at the southern extremity of the American continent, though not further from the equator than Iceland, is inhabited only by sea birds and a few roving tribes of savage Indians. In northern Europe there are permanent settlements on the Vaigats Islands three hundred miles further north than the north coast of Iceland, and also near the northern extremity of Norway, where the town of Hammerfest, latitude $70^{\circ} 40'$ N., keeps its harbor open the year round, and suffers on the whole more from the gnawing plague of the short summer than from the vicissitudes of the long but mild winter. The village of Upernavik, Greenland, is more than a hundred miles further north (latitude 72° N.); but the northernmost permanent habitation of man is near Cape Sabine, Ellesmere Island, latitude 78° N., longitude 77° W. (from Greenwich), where a tribe of Esquimaux braves the horrors of the arctic climate, though on Melville Island, a hundred miles further south, Captain Parry found his winter camp almost untenable. The eightieth degree of northern latitude can therefore with certainty be assumed to be the northernmost limit of the habitable land, though in the drift of the Gulf Stream, due north of Iceland or Scandinavia, the crew of an anchored ship might possibly maintain existence a few degrees further north.

GEOGRAPHICAL EXTENT OF ANIMAL LIFE.

Animal life has no such limits. Marine mammals and modified varieties of the bear and fox are possibly found at the very center of the polar regions. On the north coast of Grinnell Land in the highest latitude ever reached by man, they were found in great numbers. A small breed of horses

thrives on the treeless plateaus of Iceland, and the musk-ox, a dwarfed relative of the buffalo, browses the mosses of the Greenland coast as far north as latitude 79° N. As a rule polar animals are smaller than their congeners of the temperate zone, as if nature had adapted them to profit by the opportunities of shelter that would not avail a creature of larger bulk. Carnivorous animals, however, increase in size as we approach the poles, because their strength has to enable them to cope with the hardy habitants of the polar regions. Thus, while the Shetland pony and the musk-ox are but pigmies compared with our domestic varieties of the same species, the polar bear and the arctic fox are the largest representatives of their kind. As all animal life presupposes a basis of vegetable organisms, the depths of the polar seas probably conceal some species of fucus or other marine plant to support the aquatic animalcula and mollusks that feed the fish, which in their turn form the food of larger fish and seals.

UNEXPLORED REGIONS OF THE GLOBE.

Whether the open sea which the companions of Kane saw from the cliffs of Grinnell Land extends actually to the north pole, whether the vast region between the south pole and the coasts of the supposed antarctic continent is a continuous mass of glaciers and ice-fields, are questions which can be answered only by conjectures. In round numbers the unexplored area of our planet may be estimated: at the north pole one million eight hundred thousand square miles; at the south pole two million five hundred thousand square miles; the interior of Africa and Australia two million eight hundred thousand square miles. In addition to this one million square miles of South American swamp lands have never been trod by the feet of civilized men; one half of Borneo, Sumatra, and New Guinea is still unknown; the desert sand forbids approach to a large portion of Arabia and Central Asia; and the mountains of the torrid and temperate zone comprise about five hundred thousand square miles of inaccessible highlands. Certain districts of western China, Siam, Turkestan, Siberia, and British North America have never been scientifically explored.

INCREASE OF GEOGRAPHICAL KNOWLEDGE.

Still, the present extent of accurate geographical information is very considerable compared with that of the best informed nations of antiquity. The Romans knew only Southern and Central Europe and a portion of Western Asia and Northern Africa. Four hundred years ago the civilized world knew nothing of America, and very little about Eastern Asia and the interior of the African continent. Three centuries ago only half the area of the habitable earth was as accurately known as the British geographers of the present age know the countries of the British Indian Empire. The central regions of the polar circle will probably keep their secret, and the exploration of such countries as the Wad' al Akaff or "Sea of shifting sands," in southern Arabia, might add no valuable facts to our present stock of geographical information; but the rapid progress of international commerce and scientific research make it probable that before the end of the present century the maps of the thoroughly explored area will comprise every square mile of the habitable globe.

(The end.)

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY CHANCELLOR J. H. VINCENT, LL.D.

[June 6.]

One of the most striking features of what we call Nature is its vastness.

I do not forget that I am speaking to those who have become familiar with the wonders of physical science. But neither do I forget that even the scholar must refresh his impressions of things in very much the same way with other men. So I ask you to think of plains stretching to the horizon; of mountains piercing the clouds; of roomy continents anchored in roomier oceans; of this whole earth sphere, with its huge baldric of twenty-five thousand miles, covered with innumerable vegetable products, peopled with men to the potential figure of a thousand millions, swarming still more potentially with the lower animals, and so flooded with microscopic life that almost every cubic inch of air and water and soil is panting with an incalculable population,—some of whose smaller individuals multiply themselves into one hundred and seventy billions in four days; gather their five hundred millions in a single drop of water; and yet make up with the stony cerements of the merest fraction of their fossil ancestry, whole mountains and geologic beds. Such is our world.

Out in yonder vault find that millionfold world which we call the sun, with its invisible retinue of a hundred earths; out in yonder vault when night falls find a thousand suns similarly attended; with tube Galilean, thousands more; with tube Herschelian, millions more; with tube Rossian, billions more. Is this the end? What astronomer for one moment imagines that another enlargement of the great speculum at Parsonstown would show our vision to be already hard up against the frontiers of nature? Not even Darwin doubts that successive improvements in the space-penetrating power of our instruments would go on indefinitely opening up firmaments at every step. Where is the verge of the universe? Who would undertake the roll-call of its orbs? Who dares to say that he could count through the grand total of its firmaments, even though he should count a thousand years? Figures go a small way toward expressing the dimensions of such a universe.

Our world spins round its ellipse, with an axis of well-nigh two hundred million miles, without ever having a neighbor nearer than thirty millions of miles, save its own moon. The interval between our sun and the nearest star of the same galactic nebula is twelve hundred thousand times this distance. And then the distance from nebula to nebula—it is absolutely awful. Our telescopes sweep a sphere of stars whose diameter is seven millions of years, as light travels. Calculation covers its abashed face with its great wings in the presence of these overwhelming amplitudes. And such is nature! Certainly such a universe as this does not cry out against the existence of a God whose essential attribute is immensity. On the contrary it is just such a universe as one would have expected to come from such a Being. Nay, given a Deity who is practically at home in every point of space, whose attributes are laid out on a scale of unbounded vastness, to whom it is just as easy to make and govern a trillion of worlds as it is a grain of sand, and the imperial fitness of things would demand that he people vacancy with very much that profusion and

B-june.

breadth of being that we actually see. The work ought to express and honor the workman. And when I am told of an author of nature who is immense with a three-fold boundlessness of intelligence, might, and years; so that to him, our great and small, our far and near, our center and circumference—though that circumference sweep around all the expanses of modern astronomy—are practically the same; so that he can properly challenge, "Do not I fill heaven and earth?"—when I am told of this, and I then place myself out under the open dome of nature, amid its exuberant objects and marvelous stretches, I feel myself silently drinking in predispositions to faith, as the fleece spread out under the open heaven drinks in the dew. I feel that the doctrine matches facts; that the theory has in its favor a comprehensive veri-similitude and presumption; that Nature, instead of saying "There is no immense God" significantly asks, in a tone of encouragement and with a look of incipient expectation, "Is there *not* such a Being?" In fine I feel that our slight lifting of the veil from the painting has disclosed a feature strikingly characteristic of the great master to whom the work is attributed—a feature which, in the absence of all counter-evidence, naturally sets our faces faithward, one of several harmonies which as successively presented will warrant us in looking faithward with ever growing kindness of aspect.—*Dr. E. F. Burr.*

[June 13.]

One chief feature of the teaching in the Gospels is found in the word "Father." Jesus appears among men in the character of the Son. His first spoken word utters the consciousness of that relation, "Wist ye not that I must be among the things of my Father?" His first introduction to men ratifies it, "This is my beloved Son in whom I am well pleased;" and so he goes forth into the world as the Son of the Father. In right of this relation he straightway associates in it those who receive him; and when in his first instructions he lifts up his eyes on his disciples to teach them the principles of the kingdom of God, he bases everything upon this relation between them and their God. "Pray to thy Father;" "Thy Father will reward;" "Your Father knoweth what things ye have need of;" "That ye may glorify your Father;" "That ye may be the children of your Father which is in heaven;" "Be ye perfect, as your Father which is in heaven is perfect." So the whole course of his teaching tends to that intertwining of his own relation to God with theirs, which is finally expressed on the eve of his departure, "My Father and your Father, my God and your God." And this language is not a mere general declaration of the universal fatherhood of God; for it is always addressed to his disciples as such, to the little flock whom the world will persecute, and to whom it is the "Father's good pleasure to give the kingdom;" and it is further declared that the consciousness of it is only awakened in those who hear his word, for "No man knoweth the Father save the Son, and he to whomsoever the Son will reveal him;" and the right to enjoy and feel this relation is represented by St. John as a gift to those who receive him and believe in him; "to as many as receive him, to them gave he power to become the sons of God, even to them that believe on his name, which were born, not of blood, nor of the will of the flesh, nor of the will of man, but of God."

What advance is made in the Epistles upon the doctrine thus announced? It appears there in a fuller form and with plainer statements of its ground in the work of Christ, who is the Son sent forth, "made under the law to redeem those who were under the law, in order that we might receive the adoption of sons;" and with stronger assertions of the means, on our part, through which the sonship is enjoyed. "Whosoever believeth that Jesus is the Christ is born of God;" "Ye are all the children of God by faith in Christ Jesus." But the substantive addition made to the doctrine lies in the region of consciousness, and in the experience of the inward life. Believers are in Christ, and so are sons of God, but having become so they find that Christ also is in them, giving them the mind of sons and the sense of their sonship. "Because ye are sons, God hath sent forth the Spirit of his Son into your hearts, crying, Abba, Father." "The Spirit itself witnesseth with our spirit, that we are the children of God; and if children, then heirs; heirs of God, and joint-heirs with Christ." This revelation is not only seen in the particular passages which assert it, but its presence is felt in all parts of the apostolic writings, and as we read we become more and more sensible that Christ in the Spirit has perfected his teaching in the flesh, and that those who are in him have now learned all that was meant by his word "Your Father."—*Thomas D. Bernard, M. A.*

[June 20.]

The first means of spiritual growth is prayer; not the repeating of forms merely, nor the saying of words, but the honest, sincere, often voiceless prayer which comes into real contact, heart to heart, with Him to whom we pray. To pray thus is not the easy thing we are sometimes apt to imagine. It is not learned in a day, but is the result of many an earnest, devout effort. It requires the whole being to concur—the understanding, the emotions, the will, the spirit. It is an energy of the total soul, far beyond any mere intellectual act. But to the spiritual life it is as absolutely essential as inbreathing of fresh air is to the lungs and to bodily life.

Then there is meditation—the quiet, serious, devout, fixing of the mind from time to time on some great truth or fact of religion, holding it before the mind steadily, silently, brooding over it till it becomes warm and vital, and melts into us. This habit of devout meditation is recommended by good men who have practiced it, as eminently useful. But it is not much in keeping with the tone of the present day. For with all our pretensions to enlightenment, are we not now a talking, desultory, rather than a meditative, generation? Whatever other mental acquirements we may possess, we are certainly not rich in

"The harvest of the quiet eye,
That sleeps and broods on its own heart."

And yet without something of this meditative habit, it is impossible to lay living hold of the first truths of morality and religion. It were well, therefore, if we should at times turn aside from life's bustle, and "impose a Sabbath" on our too busy spirits, that the things of sense being for a while shut out, the unseen things may come in to us with power.

Again, few things are more helpful than the study of the lives of the most eminent Christians from the beginning. The Roman church has her lives of the saints, some of them of doubtful authenticity. The Universal church should have a *catena* of lives of the best men of each age, from primitive times till now. It would include the saintly spirits of all ages, from all countries, men of all ranks, of every variety of temper, taken from the most diverse churches. Such a *catena* would be the strongest of all external evi-

dences. It would exhibit Christianity, not so much as a system of doctrines, but as a power of life, adequate to subdue the strongest wills, to renew the darkest hearts, to leaven the most opposite characters. If an intimate study of it were more common, how much would it do to heal divisions, to deepen and enlarge the sympathies of all Christians by the exhibition of their common spiritual ancestry!

But if such an intimacy with good men gone is beneficial, not less so is intercourse with the living, our elders or companions more advanced than ourselves. They will understand what I mean, who have ever known any one in whom the power of Christian love has had its perfect work. As from time to time they turned to these, did they not find from the irregularity of their own minds and the distractions of the world, shelter and a soothing calm? "The constant transpiration" of their characters came home with an evidence more direct, more intimate, more persuasive than any other. "Whatever is right, whatever is wrong, in this perplexing world," one thing they felt must be right—to live as these lived, to be of the spirit they were of. Impressions of this kind affect us more powerfully in youth than in later years, yet they are not denied us even in mature manhood. Happy are those who have known some such friends. They are not confined to any age or station, but may be found among poor men and unlearned, as readily as among the most gifted. Let us cherish the society of such persons while we may, and the remembrance of them when that intercourse is over. For we may be quite sure of this, that life has nothing else to give more pure, more precious, than such companionship.—*Prof. J. C. Shairp.*

[June 27.]

But the last, and by far the most powerful, of all outward aids to spiritual growth, is to bring the heart and spirit into close contact with that Life which is portrayed by the four Evangelists. But before we can do this satisfactorily, some may say, we must settle a host of difficult problems, fight out our way through a whole jungle of vexed and intricate questions. "One knows the interminable discussions of modern criticism on the origin, the authenticity, and the mutual relations of the four Gospels. But for our present purpose we can leave all these questions on one side. The authenticity of the evangelistic teaching will always prove itself better by its own nature and self-evidencing power, than by any criticism of the documents." To say this is not to disparage criticism, which has its own place and use. But that place is not the central or vital one. Criticism is not religion, and by no process can it be substituted for it. It is not the critic's eye but the child's heart that most truly discerns the countenance that looks out from the pages of the Gospels. If we would not miss or distort that image, let us come to it with an open heart, feeling our need of help. Such a way of studying the Gospels, simple, open-hearted, reverent, is the truest, healthiest, most penetrating means of feeding the divine life. When once by long, single-hearted, steadfast contemplation the impression has graven itself within, it is the strongest, it is the most indelible, that we know. Dogmatic convictions may change, criticism may shift its ground, but that image will abide, rooted in the deepest seats of moral life. Whatever storms may shake us in a troubled time, this anchor, if any, will "hold." Try before all things, especially while you are young and open to impressions, to bring understanding, imagination, heart, conscience, under the power of that master vision. That image or rather that Person, so human, yet so entirely divine, has a power to fill the imagination, to arrest the affections, to deepen and purify the conscience, which

nothing else in the world has. No end so worthy of your literary and philosophic training here, as to enable you to do this more firmly and intelligently. All criticism which tends to make the lineaments of that countenance shine out more impressively, shall be welcome. Whatever tends to dim it, or remove it to a distance, we shall disregard. For we know with a certainty which far transcends any certainty of criticism, that He is true.

But if we would deepen and perpetuate in ourselves the impressions thus made, we must remember that the surest way is to act on them. There is, I fear, a tendency in all of us to desire clear convictions and vivid feelings about these things, and to rest there, content with convictions and feelings. And so they come to naught. If they are not to be merely head notions or evanescent feelings, they must be taken into the will and pass out into our actions. This is what our Lord said: "If any man will do His will, he shall know of the doctrine whether it be of God." Knowledge is to follow doing, not precede it. In order to understand we

must commence by putting into practice what we already know. "Unfortunately, all ages and parties have gone to work the other way, adjourning the doing of the doctrine, hastening to busy themselves with the theory of it." And each individual man must be aware of this tendency in himself, the desire for a fully mapped out system of truth, which, after he has got it, he will begin to think of practicing. But we shall never get it thus. To do what we know to be right first, however little that may be, to follow out the light we have, this is the only way to get more light. Whatever good thoughts or feelings we have, we must try earnestly to embody them in act, if we wish to grow. But to will and do are so much harder than to speak and speculate, and even feel. This is the reason we turn aside from the former, and give ourselves so much to the latter. But it is in vain we do so. In spiritual things there is no attaining to higher light without obedience to conscience. This gives solidity to a man's character, and assurance to his faith, as nothing else does.—*Prof. J. C. Shairp.*

INTERNATIONAL LAW.

BY HON. FRANCIS WHARTON.

NEUTRALITY.

Neutrality is a subject with which the United States has always been peculiarly interested. When engaged in our Revolutionary war it was a matter of supreme concern to us what attitude was to be taken towards us in the struggle, by the great European powers. The continental jealousy of England, the result of the arrogant tone taken by England on the high seas, gave us no reason to complain of the want of European continental sympathy. France soon abandoned a neutrality, by no means unkindly to us, for a treaty of alliance; Spain followed, though with faltering steps, in her path; and the great northern powers recognized us as belligerents as soon as such recognition could be of any value to us.

When the French-English war broke out, not long after our government was established on its present constitutional basis, we found ourselves bound to take, as between France and England and afterwards between France and the various coalitions which were arrayed against her, a position of neutrality which was beset with peculiar difficulties. To France we were indebted for acts of generous kindness, by which we had been greatly aided in securing our independence, and we were allied to her by a treaty which guaranteed to her her West Indian possessions, and gave her exclusive privileges of bringing prizes in case of war into our ports. To England there was on the part of a large section of the community a strong attachment arising from community of language, community of history, community of literature, community in a large measure of constitution. But by neither France nor England were we treated with the respect to which an independent sovereignty, young as was ours in the family of nations, was entitled. Our shipping was ravaged; their ports with which we had previously traded were closed to us by decrees as arbitrary and inconsistent with the law of nations as they were insolent; while from England came the crowning insult of impressment.

Beset with difficulties so numerous and trying, it required great ability to construct a policy of wise neutrality. That policy, however, was successfully marked out by Jefferson in the administration of Washington. It embraced the following positions:—

A neutral is entitled to furnish supplies and munitions of war to belligerents. The only qualification is that there should be no discrimination as to such sales. They should be made to both belligerents or to neither.

The same may be said of merchant vessels. There was a time, which it is hoped will soon return, when the swiftest and most commodious merchant vessels in the world were built in the United States. It has always been held to be not a breach of neutrality for citizens of the United States when neutral, to sell such vessels to a belligerent.

Nor is it a breach of neutrality for a nation to permit its citizens to enlist in a foreign belligerent army. England has always permitted her subjects to take part as soldiers in foreign wars; some of the most respectable citizens of the United States have taken part in the service of foreign states when engaged in war.

Nor is it a breach of neutrality to give port hospitality to belligerent men-of-war. It is settled, however, that they cannot lawfully abuse this hospitality by making the port in which they are received a seat for hostilities against their enemy. If cruisers belonging to both belligerents are in the same port at the same time, they are precluded by the law of nations, from leaving simultaneously; though this does not prevent them from leaving at separate times, after a fixed interval, for the purpose of engaging in a fight in the open sea. The same rule prohibits naval fights in territorial waters; and the sovereign whose cruisers bring on such a fight, is required to compensate the sovereign of the neutral waters for the injury and insult to which he was subjected.

Such are some of the more prominent neutral immunities. I proceed now to notice some of the more prominent neutral duties.

A neutral is not allowed to permit the enlisting on his soil of troops by a foreign belligerent sovereign.

A neutral cannot, consistently with his duties of neutrality, permit belligerent vessels of war to be fitted out in his ports, and so have their armament materially increased. This was the position taken by the government of the United States during Washington's administration; and such was the position pressed by us on the British government during the late Civil war; their failure to comply with the restric-

tions thus required, leading to immense losses to the United States, which were repaid by Great Britain under the requisition of the Geneva Conference to which the Alabama claims were referred.

Nor can a neutral, without like consequences, permit the transit of armed troops of one of the belligerents over his soil.

Nor can we permit our territory to be made a basis of operations, which one of the belligerents could use for the attack of the other. Nor can we permit the issue of armed expeditions from our coast to aid either belligerent.

It is to be observed that the degree of vigilance to be required of a neutral in the prevention of support of the character so prohibited from being given to a belligerent, is not perfect vigilance. If it were, the burden would be intolerable. To prevent armed belligerent cruisers—small as well as large—from being fitted out and sent forth from our coasts, every harbor large enough to receive the smallest gun-boat, would have to be guarded by us; and every hamlet from which a band of armed men could issue, would have to be encircled by an armed preventive police. If the law of nations imposed such a burden as this upon neutrals, neutrality would be a great folly in a time of extensive maritime war, since in such a case it would be far more economical to turn in and take a hand in the fight as a principal, than to have to pay the losses of both belligerents, as a neutral. Hence there is a general feeling that the Geneva Conference went too far in the restriction of neutral immunities; and that it would be for the interests of peace and humanity to withdraw from some of the more extreme positions it took. And it is now generally understood that there is no civilized nation by whom these positions are accepted to their full extent.

It must be remembered, also, that it is perfectly consistent with the duties of a neutral sovereign, to permit his subjects to express warm sympathies with one or the other of the belligerents in any existing war, or even to send to them contributions of money or supplies. This was done in the United States during the Franco-German war, when French sympathizers in the United States sent large contributions to France, and German sympathizers in the United States sent large contributions to Germany. Even aid in the shape of funds sent by citizens of the United States to insurgents in another land, is not considered a breach of neutrality. And it has never been questioned that the citizens of a neutral state may during war lend money to the government of a belligerent.

PACIFIC REMEDIES.

The range of pacific remedies in cases of differences between nations, has been largely extended in late years. They may be enumerated as follows:—

Explanation, apology, and redress. In the *Trent* case, for instance, when the British government summoned our own to explain the arrest of Messrs. Mason and Slidell on the high seas on a British packet, by a cruiser of the United States, Mr. Seward promptly declared that the action of Commodore Wilkes in not taking the *Trent* to a prize court was an error; that his taking the law into his own hands by the forcible removal to his own vessel of the captives, was a violation of the law of nations for which an apology was due; and that the captives were to be surrendered to the British government. The British government in like manner tendered to us, though somewhat tardily and ungracefully, apology and redress for its unjustifiable attack on the *Chesapeake* in the troubled times that preceded the war of 1812.

Arbitration has now become a common method of settling international difficulties. The recent history of our govern-

ment has been distinguished for the numerous arbitrations by which it has been marked. There is in South America scarcely a single state with which we have not had an arbitration to settle differences; and in most cases these arbitrations have been satisfactorily conducted. The most signal instance of arbitration known in diplomatic history, is that on the Alabama and kindred spoliation for which we claimed large damages from England. The relations of the parties were remarkable. The United States which had been for fifty years the zealous expounder and vindicator of neutral rights, chiefly against Great Britain, now appeared as the champion of belligerent pretensions; Great Britain which during these fifty years had pressed belligerent pretensions to such an outrageous extreme, now appeared to espouse the rights of neutrality. The composition of the court of arbitrators was at least not favorable to Great Britain, which had not borne in former days the scepter of the ocean with particular meekness, and which has not been invariably distinguished by that tact and consideration by which international discussions should be conducted. It may be not unnaturally surmised, also, that Great Britain, concluding that with her great maritime superiority it would not be her policy to curb too tightly the prerogatives of belligerents, was not as earnest as she might have been in the maintenance of neutral rights. At all events the majority of the arbitrators, in the judgment rendered by them, imposed on neutrals so high a degree of circumspection and of executive arbitrariness in the prevention of breaches of neutrality, and so widely extended the area of such breaches, as to subject, as we have already seen, neutrality to burdens which would in any great maritime war be intolerable. But, however this may be, the example of the Geneva arbitration has been of great importance as showing that a high spirited nation like Great Britain with immense naval power, prefers a pacific to a warlike settlement of claims in which she feels she is in the wrong.

Embargo and non-intercourse were measures adopted during the presidencies of Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Madison, for the purpose of restricting the area of British and French spoliation, and at the same time, withholding supplies from English and French ports. These measures, however, were not eminently successful, and it is questionable whether they did not injure the United States as much as they injured Great Britain. It is clear, at the same time, that by greatly reducing the number of our merchant vessels at sea, they curtailed the losses we would otherwise have been compelled to sustain, and that France, at all events, whose temper to us was as hostile as was that of England, suffered somewhat from the diminution of the supplies that she had been accustomed to obtain from us. The justification of the embargo and the non-intercourse act is to be found in the fact that at that particular juncture we could not afford either to go to war or remain at peace with either of the belligerents. The best we could do was to nurse and shelter our resources for the war that was sure to come. And this is what we did.

Reprisals. When an injury is inflicted by one sovereign upon another, or upon the latter's subjects, the latter is entitled by the law of nations instead of declaring war, to take in his own hands redress by seizing sufficient of the property of the former to make up an indemnity. But measures of this class are rarely resorted to except in dealing with a semi-civilized and barbarous state. To attempt reprisals, at least by seizing property as indemnity, on a foreign sovereign ranking among the leading powers of civilization, would in most cases lead to war.

WAR.

War, in the first place, may be either qualified or absolute. For many years the maritime powers were in a state of qualified war with the Barbary powers. During the first two years of Mr. John Adams' administration, the United States was in a state of qualified war with France. To constitute a state of qualified, as distinguished from absolute, war, it is essential that war should not be formally declared, and that diplomatic relations should be nominally preserved. It may also be observed that war by a particular sovereign may be limited to a particular portion of his dominions. Thus, in the days of George III., Hanover could be at war when England was at peace; and in the same reign France and England were at war in India and at peace in Europe. In Mr. Monroe's administration we were in a condition very much like war with Spain in Florida, while we were at peace with Spain on the high seas.

Under the constitution of the United States the prerogative of declaring war is vested in Congress. This, however, is a limitation more formal than real. Not only is the president at liberty to institute against foreign nations hostilities which must almost necessarily result in war, but he may be forced into war, sometimes by necessity, sometimes in self-defense. Thus when, in Mr. Monroe's time, a band of marauders stationed itself in the then Spanish territory, and when Spain, though appealed to, either could not or would not expel them, Mr. Monroe did not hesitate as a matter of necessity to march, as we have seen, troops across the Spanish boundary in order to drive them away and destroy their forces. And if after the attack by a British cruiser in 1808 on the American cruiser *Chesapeake*, the British squadron had been attacked for the purpose of driving them from our coasts, this would have been war without a congressional declaration, yet it would nevertheless have been war.

I proceed now to notice some of the effects of war. A foreign war, so it is said, abrogates all treaties between the parties which touch the questions which the war concerns. It also suspends all business relations and contracts which the citizens of one belligerent may have with the citizens of the other.

So far as concerns private property on land, the better view is that it is to be held sacred from belligerent appropriation, with the following qualifications:—

An invading army may levy contributions in cases of obstinate resistance, and in any view the levying of such contributions is within the discretion of the commanding general. And an invading army may under the same limitation draw its support from the soil. But the appropriation of articles not proper for such support or included in such contributions is forbidden by the law of nations. Of course contraband of war may be seized and appropriated anywhere.

When we come to the question of the seizure of an enemy's property at sea, we encounter difficulties by which statesmen and jurists have been peculiarly disturbed and divided. So far as ships are concerned, whether public or private, there is no question. A belligerent is entitled to seize ships belonging to his enemy wherever he can find them, provided he does not for this purpose invade neutral waters; and merchant ships belonging to the enemy's subjects are as much open to his appropriation as are ships of war. When, however, we come to the cargo of ships a new question arises. Can an enemy's goods be seized on board a neutral ship? So it was maintained by Great Britain during the period of her naval contests consequent on the first French revolution; and so it is still often asserted by belligerents

who when not bound by treaty, have a superior naval force. Yet the consequences, in the unlimited supervision it gives a belligerent over neutral commerce, and the barbarous element of rapine which it introduces into naval wars, are so pernicious, that neutrals have always protested against the acceptance of the doctrine as a principle of international law; and it was to contest it that, among other causes, we engaged in the war of 1812 with Great Britain. At present the clause that in case of war "free ships shall make free goods," as the more liberal rule in this respect is generally stated, is introduced into most treaties as a rule to bind the parties in case of hostilities; and it is not likely that the right to search neutral ships, and to ransack them for enemy's goods for the purpose of carrying off such goods, will ever again be maintained by one of the great powers of civilization. If the seizure of an enemy's private property on shore is prohibited by the law of nations, there is no reason why we should not hold such prohibition to extend with the same qualifications to the seizure of private property at sea.

In respect to the converse proposition, that enemy's ships make enemy's goods—in other words, that an enemy's flag taints the goods it carries with its hostile character—there has been also much dispute. If we were to adopt the same rules as to private property at sea that we adopt as to private property on land, then we would not hesitate to conclude that neutral goods could not be seized by a belligerent, even though sailing under an enemy's flag. But this conclusion is not generally accepted. In the first place as the object of war is to cripple and consequently to subdue an enemy, whatever would tend to this result may be regarded as a legitimate warlike measure; and certainly few measures are more likely to cripple an enemy who depends on his commerce than the seizure of his ships, and if neutrals permit their goods to be transported in such ships, it is their fault since the peril is known to them, and it is also known to them that when a ship containing their goods is captured, those goods must be captured in the ship, and that in any view it would be difficult to separate in the ship neutral from enemy's goods. But in this question as in that of free ship-making free goods, there is a tendency to a more liberal policy—a policy which would relieve war from the feature of rapine.

We come next to the consideration of the question of the rights of persons taken in war. As a rule non-combatants are not subject to molestation by an invading army. It is otherwise, however, with all forming part of the enemy's military service. These, wherever they may be, may be seized and made prisoners. As prisoners they are to be treated with the humanity prescribed by the laws of war,—as to sustenance, restraint, and parol.

As to who are to be regarded soldiers there are some interesting questions to be considered. The distinctions generally accepted are as follows:—

A person who under his sovereign's direction engages in hostilities of any kind in the country of another sovereign, is to be regarded as representing such sovereign, and as such, responsible personally for the harm he does, unless in conformity with the laws of war. A case of this character, which has been already noticed in other relations, arose during the close of Mr. Van Buren's administration, and caused great public agitation both during that administration and those of General Harrison and Mr. Tyler who succeeded. The steam-boat *Caroline*, as we have seen, had been employed in fomenting an insurrection in Canada, carrying supplies and recruits from various places on the lake to the Canadian shore. As she was dexterous enough to evade the

Canadian authorities in their own waters, they sent forth an expedition to catch and destroy her wherever she might be found. She was discovered on a dark night in the port of Schlosser, in New York, where she was attacked and destroyed, several lives being lost in the conflict. Mr. Van Buren's government immediately made complaint of this invasion of the territorial waters of the United States, and it was apologized for and defended on the ground of necessity. Two years afterward a Canadian named McLeod, happening to be in New York, boasted that he had been one of the assistants. He was arrested, tried, and ultimately acquitted on the ground that an *alibi* was established. But on the question of his amenability to the courts of New York for an act of hostility committed by him under the instruction of his sovereign (supposing him to have been one of the invading party), there was great division of opinion.

By a majority of the Supreme Court of New York, before whom the question arose on *habeas corpus*, it was held that he was so liable. But Mr. Webster backed by Chancellor Kent, Chief Justice Spencer, and other eminent jurists, maintained that in such cases the quarrel is not with the subject who executes the order, but with the sovereign who gives it, and that in such cases the subject is only responsible under the laws of war. And such is the better law.

War may be ended either by a formal treaty of peace, which is usually the practice with leading powers when war has been formally instituted, or by cessation of hostilities, as is usually the case with qualified war, which beginning, as was the case with the French-American war in Mr. John Adams' presidency, without a declaration, ends merely in the withdrawal on both sides of hostile aggressions.

THE AGE WE LIVE IN.

BY JAMES R. JOY, A.B.

The purpose of this article is to outline the more important features, physical, political, and social, of the world to-day; to indicate the point which has been reached in the development of the planet and its people.

As an age of discovery the present is worthy of comparison with any preceding century. Franklin pushing his way through the ice of the Northwest Passage in 1847, and Nordenskjöld forcing the Northeast Passage around Asia-Europe in 1877, may well be classed with Columbus crossing the summer seas from Palos to San Salvador in 1492. The Arctic explorers of Greeley's party penetrated to 83° 24' north latitude, or within four hundred fifty miles of the pole. The long sought source of the Nile was found by Speke in the magnificent Lake Nyanza which contests with Lake Superior for the honor of being the largest body of fresh water on the globe. Stanley has traced the Congo from its head waters in Eastern Africa to its mouth in the Atlantic, two thousand eight hundred miles distant, and from his explorations has grown the Congo Free State with a million square miles of territory and forty millions of people—an opening into Central Africa for Christianity and trade.

Not only have new lands been discovered, but commerce aided by steam and electricity has moulded the older countries to its purposes. Railroads, canals, and steam-ships have transformed both routes and methods of transportation. The United States contains one hundred twenty-five thousand miles of railroads, and there are five lines from the Atlantic to the Pacific. There are in all three hundred thousand miles of railroads on the globe—sufficient to build a single track from the earth to the moon. Engineering science has kept pace with the railroad, bridging rivers and tunneling mountains. Three tunnels, the Mont Cenis, St. Gotthard, and Arlberg, respectively eight, nine, and six miles in length, connect the roads of Italy with those of Switzerland and France, and transform the Alpine barrier into a gate-way.

Besides leveling mountains commerce has united oceans. Many a richly freighted vessel had fallen prey to the storms which lurk about Cape Horn and the Cape of Good Hope, before French enterprise cut a ship canal across the Isthmus of Suez and opened a short and safe route to India. Spurred on by the success of this undertaking, De Lesseps, the engineer, began the construction of a canal at Panama through the narrow strip of land which separates the two Americas.

This work is to be completed before 1890. Posts and telegraphs have revolutionized modes of communication. The International Postal Union, formed in 1874, embraces thirty million square miles of territory with a population of eight hundred thirty millions, and the letter postage to any point in this vast domain is but five cents the half ounce. The telegraphs of the world aggregate six hundred thousand miles, besides sixty thousand miles of submarine cables. Six ocean cables bind the New World to Europe, and plans are forming to lay a bundle of wires under the Pacific from California, by way of the Sandwich Islands, to New Zealand, connecting there with the English system and completing the electric circuit of the globe.

Politically the civilized world is divided into about fifty independent states. Three fifths of the whole earth, however, belongs to six nations: England (8,581,556 square miles), Russia (8,520,637 square miles), China (4,419,150 square miles), United States (3,501,404 square miles), Brazil (3,288,963 square miles), and Turkey (2,406,492 square miles). In marked contrast to these giants, is the Italian Republic of San Marino with thirty-two square miles of territory.

The political movement of the present century has been every-where away from absolutism. One hundred years ago the United States was just entering upon her experiment of government by the people. England despite her narrow colonial policy was then superior to the nations of Europe in constitutional liberty, and she has maintained her lead; repeated "Reform Bills" have extended the elective franchise to larger and larger numbers, and Mr. Gladstone's act of 1884 qualified three million new voters, making the present House of Commons the first to represent, in a true sense, the common people of England.

But the reforming English statesmen have had a hard struggle to outstrip the awakened nations of the continent. In 1786 there were five Great Powers—Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia,—all absolute despotisms, except the first. Then the French Revolution threw Europe in confusion. France passed from the sway of tyrannical Bourbon kings to the license of Republican mobs; then the forces thus suddenly turned loose were mastered by Napoleon, and utilized in the fabrication of a military despotism; yet his campaigns in one form or another made way for liberty. When the emperor had been defeated and shut up to die on Saint Helena, the powers assembled in the Congress of

Vienna to re-arrange the disordered map of Europe. They thought to restore everywhere the conditions of thirty years before. But not all the kings "nor all the kings' men" in Europe could bring back the old blood-sluggishness to people who had caught the new ideas of liberty and equality, which had glittered on the bayonets and crashed in the cannon of France. For a time despotism with its armies held the suffering and struggling nations in a vise-clutch. But even despotism yielded to the "years of revolution," 1830 and 1848, and to-day Russia alone of the Powers remains an absolute monarchy—"a government limited only by assassination." Hungary liberated by the devotion of Kossuth and his compatriots, now forms with her former mistress the dual state of Austria-Hungary. Austria has lost the leadership in Germany, and Prussia is but one, albeit the chief, of the twenty-five kingdoms, duchies, principalities and republics which since 1871 have constituted the federal German Empire. France after a series of changes which bespeak the impulsive Gallic blood, became a republic in 1871. Spain in an effort to follow the example of her neighbor, learned that the true republic can not stand upon a foundation undermined by ignorance and superstition.

There is now a sixth Great Power. Italy, also, long the seat of warring states, learned a lesson of nationality from beyond the French Alps. In spite of Austrian repression backed by Russian armies, the wisdom and energy of Mazzini, Garibaldi, Cavour, and Victor Emanuel brought about in 1861 the kingdom of United Italy. Ten years later Rome was seized by the royal troops, and the cheers of the soldiers hailing an Italian king in the capital of the Cæsars, echoed from the Vatican behind whose time-stained battlements the pope, a self-styled "prisoner," lamented the loss of his temporal power.

Greece, Servia, Roumania, and Montenegro, for years the spoil of Turkish tax-gatherers, are independent states. Turkey is shrinking back across the Bosphorus, while Russia and Austria gaze hungrily at Constantinople. It is a question of to-morrow how long the Turk will remain in Europe, and whether his proud capital will fall to czar or kaiser.

Revolutions have not been confined to the Old World. The disorder in Southern Europe tempted the dependent states of America to revolt, and before 1825 Mexico, Central and South America, were free from Portugal and Spain. Brazil became a constitutional monarchy, and the other colonies gradually adopted governments modeled upon that of the United States.

Asia has changed but little, except by conquest. England and Russia have pushed north and south in Central Asia, until only the country of the savage Afghans lies between their outposts, like a battle-field between two armies. France has sought a precarious foothold in the kingdom of Anam, whence to maneuver for the coveted trade of China. But Russia is rapidly working eastward and southward from Siberia with the same object, and England by the annexation of Burmah (in January 1886) passed her rivals, and gained control of the principal land route to western China.

The Japanese, the "Yankees of Asia," at first reluctant, now accept gladly the institutions of the West. They not only welcome our traders, but they teach English, French, and German, in their schools. The railroad and the telegraph are spreading over this progressive kingdom. A society has been formed for the purpose of introducing the Roman alphabet into common use; and if any thing further were needed to show the spirit of the times in Japan, it may be said that there are in that country thirteen hundred native Chautauquans. Four years hence the decree of the

Mikado will summon the Japanese Parliament, and this ancient despotism will advance to its place among the free nations of the globe.

China has steadily opposed the reforms which have met with favor in Japan. Clinging to the conservatism which is symbolized in their "Great Wall," the Chinese kept their harbors closed to foreigners until an entrance was forced in 1842. Twenty-two ports have now been opened, and through them the empire does an annual export trade of one hundred million dollars. At present there is not a mile of railroad in operation in China, but recent reports have it that the authorities are relaxing, and the prospect of a whole empire to be opened to commerce has attracted attention in every financial center. Half a dozen syndicates, representing as many nations, are bidding for the privilege of constructing the projected railroads. If the new policy remains in force, the gates of China, which we have pried open a little way, will soon be flung wide to the civilization which has sprung up without, during the hermitage of the flowery kingdom. Within the period of this survey Africa has greatly altered. Of the once famous Barbary states, but one, Morocco, remains. France has taken Algeria and Tunis; Tripoli is a Turkish province; Egypt is a bankrupt dependency of Turkey, and is governed jointly by the representatives of the sultan and Queen Victoria. Gibraltar, Malta, Egypt, and Aden are the links in the chain of military stations by which England guards the road to India, and although the British occupation of Egypt has been famous only for disaster and defeat, it is still zealously maintained. The shores of Africa are crowded with the colonies of England, Portugal, and France. What little was left of the coast two years ago has since been seized by Germany—a new figure in the colonizing group. None of the settlements are very prosperous, and most of them have only a future value.

The continent of Australia, no longer the island of New Holland, is now wholly under the rule of Great Britain. Far in the Southern Ocean, overshadowed by the great land masses of Asia, and surrounded by the monster islands of the East Indies, Australia has failed to receive due consideration. Her area is almost exactly that of the United States, and her population is equal to that of the "Thirteen Colonies" at the time of the Declaration of Independence and counted in days Melbourne is no farther from London than was New York in 1776. The seven Australian states in the order of population are Victoria, New South Wales, New Zealand, South Australia, Queensland, Tasmania, and West Australia. The people are energetic and aspiring. They have cities, Melbourne and Sidney, more populous than Cincinnati or New Orleans. Forty thousand miles of telegraphs and six thousand miles of railroads consolidate these colonies, and the cable brings the latest European news to these newer Britons of the South.

More important than the physical and political status of the world is the social condition of its inhabitants—their religion and education, and the ideas which rule them. The human race is estimated to number about 1,440,000,000 souls, divided into five families: Caucasian 624,000,000, Mongolian 560,000,000, African 176,000,000, Malay 72,000,000, American 8,000,000. These are classed by religions as Christians 436,000,000 (including 202,000,000 Roman Catholics, 150,000,000 Protestants, and 80,000,000 Eastern or Greek Church), Mohammedans 170,000,000, Jews 7,000,000, Buddhists (Asia) 400,000,000, Brahmins (India) 145,000,000, Confucians (China) 80,000,000, and Shintoists (Japan) 15,000,000.

Free common schools and compulsory attendance are fruits of the new system in which the common people have

a voice in politics. The schools of this country are a national boast. The nation is an educated class, and what is true of us is true of others. Laws now exist in nearly every state in Europe compelling children to attend school for a number of years. In Germany, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Switzerland, these laws are enforced to the utmost; but in large portions of Austria-Hungary, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Greece, they are a dead letter, and more than half the people of these countries can neither read nor write. The marriage certificates of the English parish registers show that in 1882 fifteen persons out of every hundred made their mark instead of signing. In Scotland eleven out of the hundred, and in Ireland one in five of the signers were illiterate.

The South American Republics stand low in the scale of education. They were sunk so long in the mire of Jesuitical bigotry that the very desire for improvement seems to have been deadened. Probably not one third of the Central or South Americans can read or write. But, however lamentable the present condition of these states, a comparison with the past shows an upward movement. With each census the number of teachers, schools, and pupils, increases, while the percentage of illiteracy, the heritage of the Spanish rule, steadily declines.

The old system of the Roman Catholic nations, giving the control of educational matters to the Church, has been the cause of some of the fiercest political controversies of the time. The *Kulturkampf*, or religious strife in Belgium, Prussia, and France, has raged about this question of priestly interference in the schools. The result in Belgium is still in the balance, the dispute nearly causing a revolution within the past twelvemonth. Prince Bismarck annoyed by papal opposition, secured the abolition of Catholic influences in the Prussian schools, and expelled the Jesuits from the German empire in 1872. France under the republic has not only excluded the clergy from educational matters, but has gone far toward driving all religion from the schools.

From the consideration of religion and education the step is easy to the reforms of the age, the results of these closely related agencies. Organized movements against moral evil are planned and executed with a precision and success previously unknown. Slavery, which at the beginning of the century seemed destined to long life, has well-nigh disappeared. It is less than one hundred years since the framers of the American Constitution dared not prohibit slavery. It existed openly in the colonies of nearly every European power. Even in Russia and Prussia, where negro servitude was unknown, the lot of the peasant was miserable in the extreme. He was bound to the soil on which he worked, and was sold with the estate on which he chanced to be born. Now there is scarcely a taint of slavery in the breezes which blow far and wide over the continents and islands of the world. The agitation against it was itself vigorous, and was fiercely met. But the reform slowly made its way from land to land. The slaves in the English colonies were liberated in 1833. The twenty-three million Russian serfs were set free by the decree of the czar in 1861, and the American slaves were freed from bondage by the Civil war of 1861-1865. In the colonies of Portugal and Spain the nefarious trade is still stealthily carried on with the nominal disapproval of the government. In Brazil a series of acts aimed at the abolition of slavery culminated in the law of 1885, which provides for the gradual emancipation of all the slaves in the empire. If this act (which is hotly opposed) should be enforced, the matin bells of the next century will ring out upon a new world freed at length from the curse which has rested upon it since the first Spanish navigators burst into its hitherto untraversed seas.

The hands of the century time-piece had passed the quarter before the work of restricting the sale of intoxicating liquors was begun in earnest. Zealous men and women now devote their lives to this cause. The pulpit, the press, the platform, and the polls are made to serve in the temperance warfare. Whole states in our own land have prohibited the liquor traffic. Ireland has been uplifted through the agency of good Father Mathews, who preached the new crusade with the same zeal and fidelity which gave life to the exhortations of Peter the Hermit. The nations of Europe are beginning to see their danger, and some of them, like Switzerland, are taking constitutional means to restrict the evil.

Emancipation and prohibition strike the key-note of the moral tone of the age. But they only stand at the head of a long line of philanthropies. The sun will set many times before it rises on that millennial dawn when the world shall be governed to the minutest detail by the principles of Christian ethics. But the world is rolling that way. The charities of the age, numberless as the poor for whom they are intended, are the direct outgrowth of Christianity, even though they did not all originate in the heart or brain of a member of the visible Church. The religion of loving one's neighbor—the science, it has almost become, of altruism—is building asylums and hospitals for the sick and the unfortunate; it visits the prisons to make them reformatories instead of schools of crime; it inspires flower missions to take a little of the free air and sunshine of the open fields into crowded city tenements; it takes children from their sickening city haunts and gives them a short experience of country life and country kindness, sending them back with more health in their bodies and more happiness in their lives; thus in its subdivisions it runs out along a hundred lines—this glorified Christian charity—always intent to heal the sick, lift the down-trodden, and wipe away the tears from the eyes of those who mourn.

Undertakings distinctively Christian are the Young Men's Christian Associations with one hundred thousand members in this country, and Protestant missions which have expanded beyond all precedent. Madagascar, Fiji, and the Sandwich Islands have been reclaimed from heathenism within the century, and have become civilized Christian states. These are the results usually put forward to show the progress and efficiency of missions, and with them may be placed the expenditures of the churches for this object, and the sacrifices of the men and women who have performed the work. The whole constitutes a striking chapter in the history of Christianity.

The age with its increased liberty has also introduced a class of disorders which are known as socialistic. There are anarchists, nihilists, and socialists, but all are jumbled under the latter appellation. Russian nihilism seeks through a secret organization to do away with absolute government. This association draws its support mainly from the educated classes who see more clearly than the duller peasants the wrongs which are put upon them. The refusal of the authorities to modify the government in response to the universal demand of the people for more freedom, and the harsh measures taken to crush the agitation, led to the adoption of the most extreme measures on the part of the nihilists, who decided that no man's life should stand in the way of the people's good. They assassinated their enemies even to the Czar Alexander himself, and new plots are continually unearthed by the imperial police.

The social democrats or socialists are a significant element in the affairs of Western Europe. They comprise many sections, each following the lead of some expounder of social

doctrines. In Germany the movement is best organized, and a quotation from the utterances of one of its leaders shows its more moderate demands: "Universal suffrage for both sexes above the age of twenty; legislation by the people themselves; free courts of justice, and free schools, with a total separation of Church and State." Another section advocates a re-distribution of property, the abolition of wealth, and the re-organization of society upon the basis of equality. The anarchists would abolish all government as the preliminary step to this re-organization, while still another division would strengthen the hands of the government at the expense of the individual rights, by providing for government control of land and industry. In order to check the progress of ideas so unorthodox, Germany has passed stringent anti-socialist laws; but, even with the right of free speech and free press denied them, the social democrats continue to be elected to the imperial parliament, and to exercise a growing influence upon the country. At a juncture like the present when "times are hard," the great cities are filled with unemployed men, who listen eagerly to a philosophy which teaches that wealth is a crime to be punished, and property should be shared by all. There are mildly socialistic doctrines in the declarations of the American Knights of Labor. But these are not anarchists and their socialism is not of the dangerous sort. For in a country like this, in which wealth is generally diffused, and where the land-question is solved, by the millions of acres of public lands to be had almost for the asking, the doctrines of an

advanced socialism are preached to slumbering congregations. Where every one has something to lose there is small likelihood of a general desire to re-organize society.

This great agitation leading, as some think to anarchy and ruin, is not altogether an evil. Its manifestations in mobs and murders are deservedly condemned; but it is surely an advance when the slave first learns that slavery is not his natural condition, even though the earliest acts of his awakened consciousness be mad or criminal. With a broader and better appreciation of the unswerving principles of right and justice and mercy, we may look for an age in which the nihilist shall lose his grievance, and lay down his weapons in a new and liberated Russia, and the socialists of every degree shall acquiesce in social conditions which right and might shall league together to preserve.

These are no crusading days like those when the world ran wild over one idea, and serf and sovereign gathered under the single banner of the Cross. The ideas of this age are manifold. Discoveries, geographic, scientific, and mechanical, have given the race a clearer knowledge and a more complete control of the resources of their habitation. Political revolutions have spread abroad a freedom not known before. Education publicly provided and eagerly sought, exerts its leavening force upon the nations. Christianity, with its beneficent train of missions and philanthropies, moves on as steadily as the planet. These are the elements which combine to produce the age we live in.

MATHEMATICS.

BY A. SCHUYLER, LL. D.

CHAPTER IV.

THE UTILITY OF MATHEMATICS.

Let us now consider the value of mathematics as an instrument of investigation and as a means of discipline.

On every side we encounter quantity in the various forms of number, space, time, matter, force, and motion. To investigate these various forms of quantity, to ascertain their properties and relations, to determine by logical deduction the value of unknown quantities from their relations to known, is the broad field of mathematical science.

Founded on axioms, postulates, and definitions, the science conducts us by a chain of reasoning unbroken and irresistible. From the simple properties of numbers we gradually rise to the more general reasoning of the higher analysis, and at every step we find this peculiar characteristic—the truth brought to light with a clearness and power of demonstration at once irresistible and certain.

A fine example of faultless logic is found in the elements of geometry. Reasoning from definitions, axioms, and postulates, we rise with certainty, step by step, and explore a wide field abounding with new and interesting truths. We consider lines, angles, triangles, quadrilaterals, polygons in general, circles, planes, and the various forms of solids, and at every step we find the same clearness of demonstration and certainty of truth.

If we go on to the analytic methods and to the higher order of analysis, the reasoning is more abstruse and refined, but more powerful and comprehensive. What a vast field for investigation! Commencing with the plainest truths, we are conducted by an unbroken chain of reasoning to the profoundest depths. We grasp infinity, and with the most refined analysis mark the nicest shades and smallest differences.

The utility of the practical applications of mathematics is universally admitted. A knowledge of arithmetic and book-keeping is indispensable in business pursuits. Surveying is applied in laying out and dividing land, in establishing the boundaries of individual proprietors, and, on a more extended scale, in drawing lines between states and nations. By the science of navigation the mariner is enabled to sail in safety over the trackless deep, calculate his true position, and direct his course with certainty to the desired harbor. Commerce is rendered comparatively safe, and the nations of the earth are reaping the advantages which it confers, not only in the exchange of goods and products of every clime, but also in the interchange of ideas which stimulate thought and greatly accelerate the progress of the race.

A knowledge of mathematics is the key to many of the sciences, as physics, mechanics, and astronomy. Other sciences are taking on more and more a mathematical form, and must become as a sealed book to those destitute of mathematical training. With mathematics as a key we are enabled to unlock the door of the temple of science, to enter, and to read therein the profoundest mysteries, and to drink refreshing draughts from the purest fountains.

The utility of mathematics as a means of discipline is no less important than its value as a means of investigation. Our views of education should be liberal and comprehensive. A complete education embraces the development of the entire man, and his adequate preparation for the active duties of life. The physical system is to be invigorated by healthful exercise; the moral powers are to be developed and rightly directed; the intellectual faculties educated and furnished with useful knowledge; the appetites, emotions, affections, and desires, purified and controlled; the taste cultivated and refined; the will strengthened and prepared by conformity

with the law of righteousness, for the great battle of life. Many and various are the means which must be employed to accomplish all these objects so essential to success and happiness. Every branch of science, literature, or art, merits encouragement, and in advocating the claims of any branch of knowledge we should be careful not to disparage those of other branches, perhaps of equal importance. Mathematics should not, in preference to any other branch of science, be made the exclusive means of mental discipline, yet the methods of mathematics are eminently adapted to perform a certain part in the great work of education, and that part can not be so well performed by any other branch of knowledge.

Mathematical studies tend to induce certain correct mental habits. They cultivate the power of attention; for they require as an indispensable requisite to their successful cultivation, a concentration of the mind upon the subject in hand. All are aware of the value of this power of mental control, and how essential to success in difficult investigations is the ability to concentrate our minds upon the given subject, so that we can bring all our powers to bear upon it and all our resources of knowledge, with all their combined force. In such cases the most difficult problems must yield and gradually unfold themselves to our minds. Since the power of controlling the mind is, in conformity with a general law of nature, developed by exercise, and since the mathematical studies bring this power into vigorous action, they are therefore adapted to its development. It is well known that Sir Isaac Newton attributed his success to his power of concentration. When a difficult problem engaged his attention he would arise in the morning, and when half-dressed begin its solution. So completely was he absorbed in thought that meal-time would pass unheeded.

Mathematical studies are very useful in cultivating the habit of diligent application. This is evident; for application is demanded as an indispensable condition of success. Difficulties sometimes baffle all efforts for days or even weeks, and they are overcome only by the most untiring efforts. But how amply are such efforts rewarded! The joy of discovery is to the investigator, when the truth first stands out in bold relief, a rich compensation for all his toil. Witness Archimedes grappling with the problem of the crown propounded to him by King Hiero. Baffled for a long time, he at length discovers the solution. No wonder that he jumped from the bath, and ran through the streets exclaiming "I have found it! I have found it!"

Not only does mathematics cultivate correct mental habits, but it sharpens and strengthens the intellectual powers. Commencing with the rudiments of arithmetic, we find that the first principles and processes are adapted to awaken the mind to its earliest successful exercise of its reasoning powers; and in the course of its progress through the higher branches, it clearly perceives the reason for every process and the certainty of every result. The logical powers are developed by the vigorous exercise thus afforded, and from a familiarity with the finest models of reasoning, the mind learns to appreciate and to demand clear demonstration. Plato was right in placing over the door of his academy the notice, "Let no one enter who is ignorant of geometry." Would that philosophers had always heeded this caution of Plato! Had they done so, from how much mystification and confusion would we have been saved.

The business of education is not only to develop the mind, but to furnish it with such resources as will enable it to achieve success in the work of life. The fact that many departments of physical science can not be successfully studied without a mathematical training, and that these

sciences have a growing importance, renders a knowledge of mathematics an indispensable condition to every one desiring to pursue to any considerable extent, the study of nature. A thorough knowledge of mathematics thus becomes an instrument of exhaustless power, and when skillfully wielded will achieve splendid triumphs. The great astronomers have all been great mathematicians. To verify this statement we need only mention some of the distinguished names, as Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, Laplace, Bessel, Herschel, and Laverrier. The same is true also in regard to mechanics and physics, as is seen in Lagrange and Fourier and others. Portions of the pure mathematics, as descriptive geometry, and some of the applied, as astronomy, afford a fine exercise for the imagination. What a splendid object is the solar system, with its planets and their satellites and blazing comets, sweeping round their grand central orb in perfect obedience to the law of universal gravitation! A vivid and cultivated imagination gives clearness of statement and power of illustration, that will hold the attention, impress the truth, and carry conviction. Hence its value to an orator in his efforts to convince and persuade.

We shall notice certain objections to the study of mathematics, chiefly in reference to their value as a mental discipline. Conspicuous among those who have assailed mathematics on this ground is the philosopher, the late Sir William Hamilton. In reviewing Whewell's pamphlet entitled "Thoughts on the Study of Mathematics as a Part of Liberal Education," Hamilton says: "The very propositions on which these sciences build their whole edifice of demonstration, are as well known by the tyro when he opens his Euclid as by the veteran Euler or Laplace; nay, they are possessed, even in prior property by the philosopher, to whom indeed the mathematician must look for their vindication and establishment." If these principles are as well known to the tyro as to the veteran, it is because they are self-evident, and need not be referred to ulterior principles as the ground of their explanation. They afford, therefore, a solid foundation for the science upon which to rear its edifice of demonstration, and this edifice cannot be overthrown, since it is founded on the rock of truth.

If the first principles of mathematics are so clear as to be understood by the tyro as well as by the veteran, why must the mathematician look to the philosopher for their vindication and establishment?

Let us see what light the philosopher Hamilton would give the mathematician who should apply to him for a vindication of his first principles. Hamilton says in his "Philosophy of Common Sense," "Demonstration, if proof be possible, behooves us to repose at last on propositions which, carrying their own evidence, necessitate their own admission; and which being as primary, inexplicable, as inexplicable, incomprehensible." Does the mathematician need, as a vindication of his first principles, to be told by the philosopher, that they are primary, inexplicable, incomprehensible?

It is easy, if one is so disposed, to reflect on any branch of knowledge. Thus, M. Comte, the founder of the positive philosophy, the equal of Hamilton in intellect, says of metaphysics: "After two thousand years of psychological pursuit, no one proposition is established to the satisfaction of its followers. They are divided, to this day, into a multitude of schools, still disputing about the very elements of their doctrine."

Again Hamilton quotes, with apparent approval: "The mathematician is either a beggar, a dunce, or a visionary, or the three in one." This is illustrated by those illustrious beggars, dunces, and visionaries, Newton, Leibnitz, and Laplace!

Hamilton quotes again: "A great genius cannot be a great mathematician." Compare this with Hamilton's own account of Descartes: "The greatest mathematician of his age, and in spite of his mathematics, also its greatest philosopher."

How beautifully the assertion, "A great genius cannot be a great mathematician," harmonizes with the following: "We are far from meaning hereby to disparage the *mathematical genius* which invents new methods and formulas, or new and felicitous applications of the old." More beautifully even does it harmonize with the following quotation made by Hamilton: "There is, no doubt, a point at which mathematics itself requires that luminous power of invention, without which it is impossible to penetrate into the secrets of nature. At the summit of thought the imaginations of Homer and Newton seem to unite."

Again, Hamilton says: "The principles of mathematics are self-evident; and every transition, every successive step in their evolution, is equally self-evident. . . . But as every step in mathematical demonstration is intuitive, it calls forth an absolute minimum of thought." What in this quotation is true of mathematics is true of all reasoning. The passage from the premises to the conclusion is always self-evident; for if not, as the premises are the only warrant for the conclusion, the step is unauthorized, and the conclusion unwarranted. But the true test is found in originating, not in following, a demonstration. Let those who assert so flippantly that "mathematics call forth an absolute minimum of thought" be tested in originating demonstrations, and in solving problems that have baffled the ablest mathematicians, and they would find that even their maximum thought was taxed beyond its power. The assertion, "It requires, indeed, a most ingenious stupidity to go wrong where it is far more easy to keep right," is contradicted by the experience of every teacher of mathematics. Even in geometry where the demonstrations are given in the textbook, in which case the above assertion would prove true if at all, a perfect demonstration is the exception, not the rule.

In reference to the faculties cultivated by mathematics, one of Hamilton's authorities says: "We shall, first of all, admit that mathematics only cultivates the mind on a single phasis. . . . So likewise, on the other hand, the memory and the imagination remain, in a great measure, unemployed; so that, strictly speaking, the understanding alone remains to them, and even this is cultivated and pointed only in one special direction." This writer was gracious enough to leave the understanding in one special direction to the mathematicians.

Another of his authorities says: "Persons of an oblivious memory are likewise disqualified; for if the previous steps be forgotten, not a hundredth of the others can be retained. Such, in these sciences, is the series and continuous concatenation of the proofs." This looks as if the memory is exercised in mathematical study as well as the understanding.

Another authority says: "Some delight to investigate the causes and substances of things, and these are the philosophers, properly so called. Others again, inquiring into the relations of certain accidents, are chiefly occupied about these, such as numbers and figures and quantities. These latter are principally patent in the faculty of the imagination. . . . Wherefore, these principally delight in that knowledge which is situate in the imagination, and they are denominated mathematicians." This looks as if the imagination was called into requisition as well as the understanding and the memory. So we have the understanding, the memory, and the imagination—a respectable group of faculties, at least.

Again, we find it quoted: "It is an observation which all the world can verify, that there is nothing so deplorable as the conduct of some celebrated mathematicians in their own affairs, nor anything so absurd as their opinions on the sciences not within their jurisdiction. I have seen of them, those who ruined themselves in groundless lawsuits, who built extravagantly, who embarked in undertakings of which every one foresaw the ill success, who quaked for terror at the pettiest accident of life, who formed only chimeras in politics, and who had no more of our civilization than if born among the Hurons or the Iroquois. Hence, sir, you may form some judgment of how far algebra conduces to common sense." In reply to this it may safely be said that the author of it is an illustration of the fact that mathematicians are not the only persons destitute of common sense. Take lawyers, physicians, divines, farmers, mechanics, merchants, statesmen, or philosophers, and there will be found, even among distinguished names, those who entertain the most absurd notions on subjects not within their jurisdiction. Mathematicians are not peculiar in this respect. How far then does any pursuit conduce to common sense?

As to the influence of mathematics on religious belief, Hamilton quotes: "To cultivate astronomy and geometry is to abandon the cause of salvation, and to follow that of error." Newton and Leibnitz cultivated astronomy and geometry, but did not abandon the cause of salvation. Gibbon³ says: "As soon as I understood the principles, I relinquished forever the pursuit of mathematics." But was Gibbon distinguished for faith and piety?

Again, Hamilton says: "It will be easily seen how an excessive study of the mathematical sciences not only does not prepare, but absolutely incapacitates the mind for those intellectual energies which philosophy and life require." How then could Descartes be, as Hamilton said he was, the greatest philosopher as well as the greatest mathematician of his age? Disqualification for philosophy and life arises, not from a knowledge of mathematics, but from an ignorance of philosophy and life. Should it be said that an exclusive study of mathematics tends to an ignorance of other things, the reply is, no one advocates such exclusive study.

The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table⁴ says: "Given certain factors, and a sound brain should always evolve the same fixed product with the certainty of Babbage's calculating machine. What a satire, by the way, is that machine on the mere mathematician! A Frankenstein monster,⁵ a thing without brains and without heart, too stupid to make a blunder, that turns out results like a corn-sheller, and never grows any the wiser or better, though it grinds out a thousand bushels of them. I have an immense respect for a man of talent plus the mathematics; but the calculating power alone would seem to be the least human of qualities, and to have the smallest amount of reason in it, since a machine can be made to do the work of three or four calculators, and better than any one of them. I have sometimes been troubled because I had not a deeper intuitive apprehension of the relation of numbers, but the triumph of the ciphering hand-organ has consoled me." The mere calculator is not a mathematician. When a machine is invented which will work itself, and not only calculate, but develop formulas, conduct demonstrations, and originate methods, it will do to exclaim, "What a satire on the mathematician!"

While we recommend all to acquaint themselves with the principles of mathematics, we advise no one to make this study a speciality unless he has decided ability in this direction.

The mathematical sciences have given us some of our noblest thoughts. How have our conceptions of the perfections

of God and the vastness and grandeur of creation, been exalted by the revelations of astronomy! By the discovery of the law of gravitation and the proof of its universality, it has been demonstrated that all worlds are linked together in mutual dependence and revolve in perfect harmony, and thus properly constitute a universe.

The unity of creation is evidence of the unity of the creator. The heavens with the countless worlds scattered through space yet bound together by an invisible cord, give us the most sublime conceptions of the extent and grandeur of Jehovah's empire, and inspire us with reverence as we contemplate his matchless perfections.

(The end.)

PARLIAMENTARY PRACTICE.

BY THE REV. T. B. NEELEY, D. D.

PART III.

In taking a division, the members as they stand in their places are usually counted by the presiding officer, though often the clerk counts instead. The better form is for both the president and the clerk to count, for in that case the one acts as a check upon the other, and so tends to prevent mistake. When the president does not count it is well for at least two of the clerks to count independently of each other, so that by a comparison of their counts mistakes may be prevented.

Another form of dividing is that of passing in file between tellers or in other words the persons who do the counting. According to the rule of the United States House of Representatives, if the speaker is still in doubt even after a division such as has just been described, "he shall name one from each side of the question to tell the members in the affirmative and negative; which being reported, he shall rise and state the decision."

In this method the two tellers take their positions in the space in front of the presiding officer, and the members leaving their seats pass in single file between them, those on the affirmative side passing first and then those on the negative. The tellers count as the members pass and then, comparing the results to see that they correspond, report the same to the chairman. Any member can also ask for tellers, and if the count is required by the requisite number of members, it must be proceeded with. In the United States House of Representatives it requires "at least one fifth of a quorum" to order such a count by tellers, but the ordinary division is required on the demand of one member.

There are times, however, when no form of division can be called for. Thus, the call must be made before a new motion is offered or other parliamentary proceeding has commenced. That is to say it must be made promptly, and before other business has been entered upon. Again, a division cannot be required where there were voices only on one side when the question was put, for as Cushing says: "It is not competent for the party with whom the speaker declares to dispute his decision, and if there are no voices on the other side, there is, in fact, no other party to the question."

Votes are frequently taken with the members standing when the object is not a division. Thus motions or resolutions of special respect to distinguished persons and especially in memory of deceased persons, are usually adopted by the formality of a rising vote. In the latter case, at least, it is not usually considered good taste to put the negative.

Votes requiring a certain number or a certain proportion of the members, for example two thirds, must necessarily be count votes.

Another method of voting which belongs to American

Parliamentary Practice is that of taking the vote by *yeas and nays*, so that each member may answer when his name is called, and that his vote may be recorded. The usual object is to put each name on record, so that it may be known hereafter how he voted on the particular question, but often the call is made merely to consume time. Ordinarily, however, it is an important defense for the minority.

In some bodies the yeas and nays are ordered on the call of one member, but it is usual to state in the rules that a certain small minority shall be necessary to sustain the call. In Congress the vote must be so taken when the call is sustained by one fifth of a quorum, but in any meeting, unless the body has a rule to the contrary, a majority vote can order the yeas and nays.

The yeas and nays may be demanded at any time, "if made before the House has passed to other business." The call is in order after the ordinary voice vote, "while a vote on a division by tellers is being taken, or while the Speaker is announcing the result of such vote, or even after the announcement and before passing to any other business; but not after the result is announced, if delayed until the Speaker shall be in the act of putting another question."

The form of procedure is for the member to rise and say, "I call for the yeas and nays." Then the chair will say, "As many as will order the yeas and nays," etc. If the yeas and nays are ordered by the requisite vote, the presiding officer will put the question in a form similar to the following: "As many as are in favor of the adoption of the resolution will when their names are called answer *yea*, (or *yes*); and those opposed will answer *nay*, (or *no*). The clerk will call the roll."

The clerk, or secretary, then calls the roll and each member as his name is called rises and answers *yes* or *no*, and his answer is noted by the clerk. When the roll-call has been completed the clerk reads over the names of those he has marked as voting in the affirmative, and afterward the names of those who voted in the negative. This gives opportunity for correcting mistakes. Having finished the count, the clerk then gives the list to the presiding officer who states the number on each side, and declares the result.

On a call of the yeas and nays members have the right to be called again and change their votes before the decision of the chair has been finally and conclusively pronounced. This change may be made for various reasons. Sometimes it is done in order that the member may be in position to make some parliamentary movement which seems necessary in view of the nature of the vote. Thus men will sometimes change from one side to the other in order to be with the majority, or the prevailing side. But in some bodies no member is permitted to change his vote, unless he at that time declares that he voted under a mistake of the question.

The common parliamentary law is that each member shall vote on every question unless he is excused, but to this

there are some qualifications. In the United States House of Representatives a member cannot vote if "he has a direct personal or pecuniary interest in the event of such question," and "none but members who are within the bar of the House when the question is stated, have the right to give their votes upon it."

A member may be excused from voting, but he must ask to be excused, and the motion that he be excused must be made before division or the commencement of the roll-call for the yeas and nays, and the question of excusing him must be decided without debate.

But there are some questions on which no member can be excused. Thus: "On motions to adjourn, to fix the day to which the House shall adjourn, and for a call of the House, it has been held not to be in order to ask to be excused from voting; and for the obvious reason that nothing but a desire to consume time and thereby delay legislation or to prevent a majority adjourning, could possibly influence a member in making the request."

As a matter of fact, however, members frequently avoid voting. Sometimes they absent themselves and sometimes, though in their seats, remain silent. In some instances this may be accounted for by lack of courage, but in other cases the members may deem it their only fair course when neither the affirmative nor the negative in the form the question as put to the House represents their view, and when to vote at all would be to misrepresent their honest convictions and to render themselves liable to be misunderstood by the public. Such extreme cases are probably very exceptional.

Before passing from this question it is well to note that "After the yeas and nays are ordered and a member has answered to his name, the roll-call must progress without debate."

A very effective way of taking the sense of the House is to obtain the consent of the House without putting the question to a formal vote. Frequently the formality of taking a vote is unnecessary, and the time of the meeting is saved by the chair obtaining the unanimous consent of the House, that is to say, by giving an opportunity for objection or dissent and if no objection is expressed taking it for granted that all assent, "The thing being sufficiently declared when no man contradicts it."

It is evident that in many cases the judgment of the body can be very satisfactorily secured in this way, for no one objecting is unanimous consent, and unanimous consent is equivalent to unanimous vote.

In this form the presiding officer "merely inquires whether it is the pleasure of the House that such a thing should be done, and no one dissenting declares it to be so ordered."

The chair may say: "By general consent such a course will be taken," or "If there is no objection, such will be considered the order of the meeting." Thus when papers are presented which manifestly should be referred to certain committees, he may say, "If there is no objection, the report will be so referred," and after pausing a moment and hearing no objection, he may say, "It is so referred."

Or again the chair may say, "The member asks unanimous consent," or "The member asks that the paper be referred to such a committee;" "Is there any objection?" and after a pause he may say, "I hear no objection," and then, "There appears to be no objection. There being no objection, it is so ordered." The chair should give time enough between each declaration or question for the members to make objection.

If any one objects, then, of course, the question must be

put to vote, but the objection must be made when the question is put for consent.

This form of taking the sense of the House is always used where the affirmative requires the unanimous assent of the members present, for one objection is sufficient to defeat the proposition and is as effectual as a majority vote.

For such questions and for routine business this mode of taking the question is of great value, but the method should seldom, if ever, be used beyond these departments, for on other matters there would be danger of suppressing a free and full statement of the opinion of individual members. Thus in the haste of asking if there is any objection, a member might be surprised or might hesitate to express his objection, who would vote if the ordinary form of voting were followed.

Sometimes voting is by ballot. This method is used when the rule or a special vote of the body requires it, and is quite common in the election of officers, in the admission of members into societies, and also when secrecy is desired. Sometimes black balls and white balls are used, and at other times and for other purposes, slips of paper are employed.

When there is only one candidate it is not uncommon to make a motion that the clerk or some one else cast the ballot for the person named, but the question may be raised as to the legality of such a course and the soundness of the usage. Certainly this is hardly the kind of balloting meditated by the law. The principle of the ballot is secrecy, and surely there is no secrecy in this method.

Covered by the secrecy of the ballot the member can vote for any one he pleases, whether he has or has not been openly nominated. Though only one name may have been publicly presented, some members may have intended to vote for some other party or parties, but for the meeting to order the ballot to be cast openly for a specified party, is to interfere with that secrecy which belongs to the ballot and to deprive the member of his secret vote.

Of course the clerk cannot cast a ballot in that way if there is a single dissenting voice. This is admitted even by those who favor that form. But this would, so to speak, compel the member to show his hand, which is contrary to the spirit and legal intention of the ballot-voting which is secret, and the depositing of the single ballot in that way makes the voting public and not secret, and so is not in harmony with the true idea of balloting but is wholly destructive of its intention and its protection. The fact is, this method is often resorted to by a strong majority to override a minority which may not have courage enough to express its convictions.

Dr. Waples says: "The duty of balloting cannot be delegated to the clerk or to any one, except where different delegations are required to vote as a unit. * * * But in a society where each member is an independent voter representing himself only, it is not in order for a motion to be made that the secretary be instructed to cast the entire ballot of the society. A motion of this kind when adopted gives no legality to the ballot thus cast by proxy."

Cushing says: "The distinguishing feature of the oral suffrage is publicity; that of voting by ballot is secrecy. When the particular mode is prescribed by law or established by usage, no other can be regularly pursued." The same authority also observes that, "When the voting is by ballot a voter is not compellable to disclose the character of his vote."

The Hon. Rufus Waples, LL. D., remarks that, "Whenever a vote by ballot is required by law, by the charter of a

corporation, by the constitution or by-laws of a society, it must be so conducted as to allow every member to cast a secret ballot, or the result will be tainted with illegality. It is in no case valid for a majority or even a unanimous vote to evade such a requirement. Motions for the secretary or any one to cast the ballot of all, at once, are not only always out of order, but always illegal and subversive of the object and intent of the ballot."

The motion to make unanimous the election of persons who have not received a unanimous vote by ballot, is also open to objection. When the election is by ballot and the party has been so elected, that is the legal election, and not any subsequent vote which is not by ballot. Sometimes the motion is made in political conventions after a warm contest, as an evidence of acquiescence and restored harmony, but even when such a motion is tolerated a single vote against it makes it null and void, for if there is one vote in opposition, it is not unanimous, and the chair must so decide.

The motion that one be elected by acclamation is common, but generally its propriety may well be doubted. Indeed it may be a question as to whether it is good law or good usage.

It certainly cannot be done when the law requires a ballot, and it cannot be done when there is more than one candidate, and no one should present such a motion to prevent the nomination of others, for that would not be equitable.

Dr. Waples observes that "The motion 'that the candidate be elected by acclamation', literally proposes nothing more than to fix the method by which he shall be elected, though the mover may mean to elect him by the adoption of such a motion. The proper form would be to move 'that the meeting proceed to vote *viva voce* on the nomination,' if no rules obstruct. Voting by a shout is unseemly in a deliberative body. 'Acclamation' is not a method of voting known to parliamentary law. It is often moved to elect by acclamation under such circumstances that the chairman, if he chooses to aid the mover by suggesting that the evident meaning is to vote *viva voce* in the usual form of such voting, may relieve it of objection; but it is usually out of order, because either violative of a rule requiring balloting in a particular society, or of the rights of other candidates, and the privileges of members who wish to preserve the right of the secret ballot to be cast against the candidate or not at pleasure."

The presiding officer has no right to vote at any time if he is not a member of the body, except in such instances as a supreme law gives the officer the power to vote. Thus the vice-president of the United States as president of the

Senate, can give the casting vote when the Senate is a tie, that is to say when each side of the question has an equal number of votes. This is the only time he can vote in the Senate, and this duty and privilege is conferred on him by the Constitution of the United States. In the same way the constitutions of some states give their lieutenant governors the right to vote on a tie in the senates of their respective states.

If, however, the presiding officer is a member of the body, the natural presumption is that he can vote by virtue of his position as a member, for as Speaker Carlisle has said, "A speaker loses none of the rights which belong to him as a member."

If the assembly is a delegated body, the argument would, if anything, be still stronger; for his not voting when his vote would be of account, would be doing violence to his constituency and depriving it of its representative vote, and so, practically, of its representation.

The rule of the United States House of Representatives is that the presiding officer "shall not be required to vote in ordinary legislative proceedings, except where his vote would be decisive, or where the House is engaged in voting by ballot; and in all cases of a tie-vote the question shall be lost."

The principle involved is that his vote is not given ordinarily simply because it would make no practical difference in the result, but "where his vote would be decisive" he must vote, hence a chairman votes when the house has tied, for his vote given one way or the other would be decisive by giving the side upon which he votes a majority. But his vote would be decisive, not only when the house was equally divided, but also when his vote given would make a tie, for in that case by making it a tie the question would be lost.

The same reason exists for his voting when a specified number is required to carry a measure, as for example, two thirds. In such a case the vote might so stand that his single vote would determine the question one way or the other, and if his vote so given would be decisive, he would have the right to give it.

For a similar reason he must vote "when the house is engaged in voting by ballot." His vote might be decisive, and as he is entitled to the same protection of secrecy as the other members have in their voting, he votes at the same time and in the same way. If the presiding officer does not deposit his vote before the ballots are counted, he cannot then vote without the permission of the meeting. When the president votes, when the yeas and nays are taken, his name is the last called.

(The end.)

WARS AND RUMORS OF WARS.

BY D. A. GOODSSELL, D. D.

While the period whose military history I am to sketch is from April 1885 to April 1886, it seems necessary to the proper understanding of this period that something should be said concerning affairs as they stood at the opening of 1885. At this time the far away city of Khartoum was the chief point of interest in the military operations of Great Britain. Within its walls Gordon, that strange mixture of fanatic, fatalist, soldier, and spotless Christian, was conducting its defense against the hordes of Arabs without and against treachery within, and as his diary shows, feeling

that the indecision of the home government was after all his chiefest foe. All will remember the attempt to rescue him by the expedition under Lord Wolseley, which ascended the Nile in boats. At Corti the English General received a message from Gordon, which demanded instant action on his part, as the great straits to which General Gordon was reduced were made known in this communication. The division of the English army into three columns immediately followed. One column traversed the desert for almost two hundred miles; another followed the bank of the river; and

another was to support the first from Corti. Exposed to harassing attacks and almost defeated, the English force penetrated the hostile region far enough to allow an expedition to start for Khartoum on January 24. The commander of this expedition on approaching the city after four days' journey, found that it had fallen two days before, that Gordon had been killed, and that the place was in the hands of the Arabs, the gates having been opened by treachery. It was also found that the army of the Mahdi, forty thousand strong, was rapidly marching northward. The failure of the expedition left the several detachments in great danger. They were obliged to retreat immediately, which they did after severe fighting *en route*. Reinforcements which had been sent to Gobat arrived without fighting and joined in the retreat, while the twelve thousand five hundred troops from India, which were sent to Suakim under General Graham to clear the road to Berber, concentrated in March and began a campaign against Osman Digma. The Arabs stampeded the Hindostanee contingent, and the English army was saved only by the steadiness of the English regiments. The attempt to build a railroad from Suakim to Berber was thus only partially successful; the dangers of the climate and the unfriendliness of the people acting as sufficient obstacles.

Just at this point, not without strong suspicion of political aim and effect, a difficulty with Russia concerning the boundaries of Afghanistan arose, and under cover of the excitement created by the so-called unwarranted advance of Russia toward India and of the preparations for war, the British government retired from their Egyptian expedition, and the larger part of the English army returned to their several posts without anything having been accomplished. The dignity of England was not defended; Gordon was not rescued, nor were his murderers punished. A more useless expedition, a more complete failure, England has not known for centuries.

England is seldom unengaged in a little war, and so widely extended are her dominions that she often has affairs of this kind on hand. On this continent the most important warlike matter was the rebellion of Riel and his half breeds, on the Saskatchewan. This rebellion seems to have been largely justified by the negligence on the part of the Dominion authorities in meeting demands for land patents and holdings. Riel's forces do not seem at any time to have been more than twelve hundred strong, even when Poundmaker, his chief Indian ally, brought up all the men he could command. General Templeton was sent out to quell the rebellion, and fought a decisive battle at Fish Creek, compelling the rebels to retreat to the Batouches where a bayonet charge was so successful that Riel and Poundmaker were obliged to surrender. After many months of waiting and several legal investigations with an appeal to the home office, Riel was finally executed for treason, the French population of Canada regarding him as a martyr to British injustice.

But this was a very small and trifling matter compared with the excitement concerning the boundaries of Afghanistan. England, always extremely sensitive with regard to her Indian empire, has watched the rapid advance of the Russian frontier toward Afghanistan with the sharpest scrutiny of motive and of progress. Yet it is doubtful if Russia's advance would have created so much excitement had not the Gladstone ministry been under such extreme necessity on account of the failure of the expedition to rescue Gordon who was a national hero. But whether the excitement was purely natural or whether it was fanned artificially in the interest of so-called statesmanship, it is absolutely certain that the dispute created the greatest excite-

ment throughout the civilized world, so many steamers being withdrawn from the Atlantic service and such large purchases of provisions being made, that even in the United States excitement was manifest, where commonly the attitude of the American citizen is that of a languidly interested spectator. The history of this dispute seems to be as follows, though not all the facts are yet in the possession of the public.

After the conquest of Merv and the extension of Colonel Alikhanoff's outposts to Sarakhs, the Russian foreign office proposed a joint boundary commission for the delimitation of the Afghan frontier. The British government consenting, Sir Peter Lumsden was appointed the English representative, and went with a very considerable force of officers and surveyors to western Afghanistan. A delay in the advance of the Russian commissioners to the frontier, left General Komoroff at liberty to advance his outposts. The ameer's forces had before this occupied Penjdeh. The Russian commander with a zeal which he thought would be appreciated at home, stealthily advanced toward Penjdeh and the Zulfikar Pass, which is the real gate to the city of Herat and the possession of which would largely open the road to British India. Sir Peter Lumsden, as in duty bound, informed his government of these advances, and immediately the diplomatic warfare began, England claiming that Penjdeh was thoroughly within the boundaries of Afghanistan and Russia insisting that it was not. England requested that Russia should evacuate the disputed point, which Russia refused to do.

On the 13th of March announcement was made by the British premier in the House of Commons that an agreement had been reached that there should be no advance pending the final decision of the commission, but a skillfully or carelessly worded clause in the agreement permitted the Russians to advance if any disturbance should occur at Penjdeh. When a strong civilized army and a barbarian army are facing each other, a disturbance can be easily had if one is wanted. Accordingly, two weeks did not pass without a battle at Pul-i-khisti in which the Russians defeated the Afghans with great loss, and which was followed by the immediate occupation of Penjdeh. This event added to the excitement which had previously been very great, and the general opinion both in England and upon the Continent was that war could not be avoided. The military party in Russia was at this time completely supreme. The Russian newspapers were full of violent inflammatory articles against England, and Russia concentrated as large an army as possible near the Afghan frontier, while England massed her troops near the southeastern frontier as rapidly as they could be moved from the various Indian provinces. Everything that England could do by way of preparation for war was at this time done. The reserves and militia were ordered out; her fleet was made ready for sea; the largest Atlantic steamers were chartered or bought as transports; and the English store-houses were packed with supplies and munitions of war. All these preparations had a great effect on the business of the world, and as prices for American products were at that time lower than they had been for a long time, it was felt that this contest between Russia and England would at least temporarily benefit the American market for cereals and petroleum. While the world was holding its breath expecting each moment that hostilities would begin and Mr. Gladstone in one of his most famous speeches pronouncing the situation critical if not hopeless, England proposed arbitration which was without much delay accepted by Russia, and the frontier was virtually settled according to the Russian wishes, Penjdeh being permanently occupied by the Russian forces. The Zulfikar

Pass, however, remained in the hands of the ameer of Afghanistan, from whose grasp it will not be difficult for Russia to take it whenever the opportune moment shall arrive.

The only explanation of the interest taken by all of the Great Powers in the revolt in the Balkans is that large commercial interests were involved, and whether these commercial interests should be directed by Austria directly or in co operation with other states, or should pass almost wholly under the control of Russia was the question which compelled the diplomatic and military demonstrations which followed. On September 18, 1885, the South Bulgarians revolted against the Turkish governor, deposed him, appointed a provincial government, and declared their province united to the principality of Bulgaria. Prince Alexander at once put his army on the march, reached Philippopolis, and proclaimed himself Prince of North and South Bulgaria. The Turkish soldiers were disarmed without difficulty, and for once a revolution seemed accomplished without bloodshed. But this sudden accession to the power of Bulgaria was by no means welcome to either Greece or Serbia. If successfully carried out, it prevented the possibility of the absorption of the Bulgarian territory by Serbia toward which Serbian statesmanship looked under the encouragement of Austrian influence, and as a large portion of the population of South Bulgaria is Greek speaking the Greek tongue, and as the absorption of South Bulgaria into the Bulgarian principality was contrary to the Treaty of Berlin, and as Greece had found her ambitions and even her natural extension limited by that treaty, it was inevitable that she should look upon this movement as a signal to re-assert her claim over adjacent territory, and for a re-adjustment of her position under the new conditions created by the infraction of the Berlin agreement.

The active protest of the Greek government was made early in July, and the spirited little kingdom has up to the first of April been kept from trying to claim what she feels to be her own, by the pressure of the Great Powers alone, Lord Salisbury having adopted the policy which has been continued by Gladstone, of so locating the British fleet in conjunction with vessels of the other Great Powers that the Greek fleet has been prevented from making an attack. The rivalries of the Great Powers have never been more clearly manifest than in their movements since the opening of the year 1886, for the prevention of war, but equally for the preservation of their influence in the affairs of Europe. The advance movement of Prince Alexander instantly caused the armies of Greece and Serbia to be placed upon a war footing. The Great Powers who had fancied that the Eastern question was settled, were startled to find it so soon unsettled, and they felt that if Serbia was supported by Austria, and Bulgaria by Russia, Europe might easily drift into a great war.

While all the correspondence concerning this matter has not yet been made public, it would seem that the first impulse of all the Great Powers was to recognize the union of the Bulgarians and to compel Serbia and Greece to keep the peace, if necessary by force. But the action of Russia and Austria brought about a change in this policy. To the Russian mind the increase of Prince Alexander's authority meant an obstacle to the Russian designs on Constantinople, making it more difficult for either her diplomacy or her arms to approach that long coveted territory, and as the step of Prince Alexander had been taken without Russian advice, if not against Russian protest, the czar attempted to break his prestige and to diminish his influence by an open insult in removing him from the honorary colonelcy of a

Russian regiment; the excuse for this being that Prince Alexander had dismissed certain Russian officers charged with extortion.

If any one will take a new map of this section of Europe, he will easily see why Austria should stimulate Serbia to resist the enlargement of Bulgaria. Under the encouragement of Austria, Serbia mobilized her army, and in conjunction with the greater power insisted that everything should be restored to the conditions which existed before the expulsion of the Turkish governor from South Bulgaria. A conference of the Great Powers was called, but seemed unable to accomplish anything. Meanwhile on November 13, Serbia declares war against Bulgaria, and King Milan advances on Sophia, driving back from the frontier the forces of Prince Alexander. For the first two days all the dispatches seemed to indicate an easy and overwhelming victory for the Servians, but on the third day after the declaration of war Prince Alexander defeated the main Serbian army at Slivnitsa, and afterwards put to rout the entire invading army, hurling it across the frontier and rapidly following it. These unexpected successes won by good generalship instantly lifted Prince Alexander to universal notice and to greater dignity. These defeats cost Serbia seven thousand men, and the Serbian kingdom would undoubtedly have been ravaged by the victorious troops of Prince Alexander had not Austria come to the rescue and threatened retaliation if Prince Alexander should continue his victorious march.

Under the stimulus of the Great Powers an armistice was agreed upon, and the winter has been largely occupied with the diplomatic settlement of questions of indemnity and boundary, and while Serbia appears to have escaped the payment of an indemnity for her attack on Bulgaria, all the substantial results of victory are with Prince Alexander. Turkey made herself ready to take an active part in these movements if necessary, by concentrating a strong army where it could operate either against Greece or Bulgaria, and endeavored to re-assert her control of Eastern Rumelia. Early in January Prince Bismarck warned Greece that if she should attack Turkey it would be at her own risk, and that she would be left alone by the Great Powers. The middle of January the Turkish government sought for the re-assembling of the Balkan Conference, which amounted to nothing because of the great influence of the victories of Alexander. In the latter part of January the ferment which had partially subsided during the winter appeared again, and war during the summer of 1886 seems to be probable.

Notwithstanding the insult to Prince Alexander the efforts of Austria to support Serbia as against Bulgaria compelled Prince Alexander to seek the support of Russia. This brought about good feeling again between the czar and the prince; the insults were withdrawn, and the prince again honored by the czar. Turkey offers to disarm if Greece will disarm, but Greece refuses. It will be hard for an impartial observer not to sympathize with the attitude of Greece during the diplomatic contests of the winter and the martial demonstrations of the spring. The plucky little kingdom declared that England's methods infringed on international courtesy, and claimed that as Bulgaria had violated the Treaty of Berlin under the protection of England, she was justified in resorting to arms if necessary to retain what had been guaranteed to her. A little later great excitement was created by an agreement between Turkey and Bulgaria, that the Bulgarian army shall fight under Turkish officers whenever the Turkish empire is assailed. This agreement is offensive to the last degree to Russia who

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declares that it is null and void, and Greece is now stimulated by Russia as against Turkey. In this movement the hand of the English diplomat is seen. Russia is at this moment seeking to limit Alexander's governorship of Rumania to five years.

Germany has had no rumor of war during the year except a dispute with Spain with regard to some of the Caroline Islands, which was finally settled by the arbitration of the pope. At the opening of the year France under the leadership of M. Ferry attempted to secure a tropical empire, and in furtherance of the effort to carry on the war in Tonquin proposed a land march to Peking. On March 22, the French attacked the Chinese, and after two days of fighting were repulsed with great loss. The news of this disaster brought about the defeat of M. Ferry, and peace was abruptly concluded with China on June 9, on terms very favorable to the French. Anam and Tonquin passed under French control, China retaining a nominal sovereignty over Anam. July brought a great insurrection at Hué where General De Courcy was attacked and had to be supported from Tonquin. The Catholic missions suffered from the animosity of the natives against the French, and it was reported that twenty-four thousand Christians were massacred.

The somewhat pitiful attempts of France of late years to extend her colonial dependencies, have embraced the island of Madagascar, where France with doubtful success has for some years been endeavoring to establish herself. Near the first of February, 1886, the treaty between France and Madagascar was submitted to the French Chamber of Deputies, giving the French large privileges on that island and securing religious tolerance, France pledging herself to assist the queen in defending the country. This was looked upon as a final settlement of the difficulty, and as securing to France the distinctive supremacy in the affairs of that island. But while this article is being written news comes of a fresh outbreak of the native population and a serious defeat of the French troops, so that the whole question of the influence of France seems to be still unsettled.

While the attention of Europe was occupied with the Bulgarian question England thought it a good time to make an advance in the East Indies, and it is to be admitted that this particular advance has more justification than some of the attempted extensions of the British colonial frontier. King Theebaw, of Burmah, as vile a wretch, apparently, as has worn the mask of humanity, confiscated in 1885 the property of the Bombay Trading Company, an English enterprise. Demand was made for restitution and compensation, but the king refused to receive a British envoy at Mandalay, and would not submit the matter in dispute to arbitration. The

viceroy of India under instructions from the home government, Salisbury being then in power, promptly dispatched a military expedition under General Prendergast who easily captured the Minhla forts, pressed up the Irrawaddy with a flotilla, the resistance being almost nothing. On November 28, the British General entered Mandalay, the king was deposed and sent as a prisoner of war to Rangoon, and on January 1, a proclamation was issued annexing Burmah to the British empire. The government is administered for the present by officers appointed by the viceroy of India.

The United States has been singularly free from difficulty with its neighbors, and largely so with the Indian populations of the frontier. But a notorious Apache chief, Geronimo, has passed and repassed the border between Arizona and Mexico in various raids, driven over the Mexican border by our troops under General Crook, and driven back again by the Mexican forces. The news comes at this writing that Geronimo with Chihuahua, Nana, and Natchez, have unconditionally surrendered to General Crook near the San Bernardino Ranch on the Mexican line on March 27, and this is followed by Geronimo's escape.

This record of "Wars and Rumors of Wars" is not absolutely complete, but as much so as it is possible to give with reasonable accuracy. The volumes of historical authority for the events of 1885 are not yet issued, and he who would attempt to sketch the diplomatic and military movements of the different nations of the world for any one year, must seek for his information in the daily press. It is plainly evident that Christian principle has not yet so leavened the governmental forces of Christian nations as to secure absolute justice in the intercourse of the stronger with the weaker nations. Pride and self-interest masquerading under the name of patriotism still lead the military forces of the different nations against each other.

To the political philosopher the advance of democracy is one of the most weighty of visible facts. When the people who are to do the fighting determine when a nation shall go to war, there will be fewer abominations like the French attack on China or the Servian attack on Bulgaria. But the day of peace and of arbitration in the settlement of international difficulty is coming. A few years ago such an arbitration as has been successfully carried on between Germany and Spain in relation to the Caroline Islands, under the presidency of the pope would have been an impossibility. Yet it is very probable that if the interests in this case had been larger, Germany would have been much less willing to have submitted the question to arbitration, relying upon that principle which has long watered the earth with blood, that "might makes right."

A POPULAR EXPOSITION OF MORAL PHILOSOPHY.

BY DR. HENRY CALDERWOOD.

CHAPTER IV.

THE MOTIVE FORCES OF OUR NATURE.

After having treated of the authority of moral law and the supremacy of conscience as the power revealing this law, we proceed to consider the class of actions brought under the sweep of moral law. In the opening chapter it was shown that actions regarded as moral have an action within their outer form. And this inner action is the more important. It is the spirit, while the outward action is only the body; the one is the unseen purpose, while the other is the outward manifestation.

This leads us to observe that any careful study of the Cune.

moral life must include a view of the natural motive forces, for these we must govern, if we are to attain to a truly self-regulated life. Our outward actions have their own character, but it is our motive forces that are most to be considered—those inward dispositions which express themselves in deeds. For when we speak of moral actions we find ourselves always referring to such things as these: a benevolent disposition, a malicious feeling; love of fair play, cold-hearted indifference to the interests of others; contempt of things sacred, profound reverence for holiness and for the God of righteousness.

Seeing how constantly we turn back from outward conduct

to look within our own minds for the *spring* of action, we are led to inquire whether we can reach any general view of the great variety of motives which play their part in our daily life. To be able to look at them singly and thereafter in their relations to each other, will be a sure help towards an understanding of ourselves, and will prepare for a philosophy of self-government which we must seek to reach as a further station on our line of travel.

Our nature is so complex that we need to look at its separate parts as we might study an intricate machine. Learning all about a machine is even much easier than getting a true, full knowledge of ourselves. Hence Socrates in seeking to benefit his fellow-citizens kept insisting on the lesson as a great and fundamental one—"Know Thyself." He never wearied of urging this as a pressing duty, and continually insisted that it was one of the hardest duties to perform effectually. Accordingly he did not grudge spending his whole life in attempts to help others in the doing of it, for he thought it the highest of engagements, which he described as "the philosopher's work." So he suggested we must all strive to be philosophers in a measure. And if we should discover that we get on only a little way, we may be encouraged by two considerations—that the difficulty arises from the greatness of our own nature, while on the other hand we have a long time before us for continuing the study, for we shall not soon part company with ourselves. As has been well said by a powerful thinker who has not long since left us, "Any one who could see quite through himself, would seem to us to have come to an end of himself." (*Lotze's Microcosmus, Miss Hamilton's Translation. I. p. 12.*)

Toward a beginning the needful thing is to distinguish into several groups the dispositions and other powers we find playing a part in our own consciousness as *inducements* to action. We speak of outward objects, both things and persons, having *attractions* for us, and we must constantly make account of the field of action open around us, both as *place* or *sphere* to work in and as a *social state* in which persons are placed together having common interests. While, however, we keep our eyes moving freely over this wide field of action with which it is one part of the business of our life to gain increasing familiarity, we have to notice that the attractions of the outward sphere act upon us only as they awaken within us inducements to act. Hence our attention needs to be turned chiefly on those movements within our own nature, which are the precursors of our outward actions. However we look at the field and history of conduct the inner forces of our nature must supply the key to our actions, telling to ourselves and to others what our actions really mean. We must go back to the beginning of things, if we are properly to understand them, and this holds true of our actions as of all larger occurrences. This consideration shows how self-government is a possibility, for we are not acted upon so that outward objects cause action, but we have only inducements awakened within us inclining or disposing us to action. And it is when we take note of those inducements as they spring up within us, that we see where self-government begins and where it must be established if we are to be the directors of our own lives.

Taking *first* those dispositions which lie most closely connected with the outward, we note the manifold *DESIREs* rising up within us and urging us forward eagerly towards acquirement and self-gratification. Under this head we take in all the longings and cravings of our nature both lower and higher, showing how much we can seek to have that we have not, and how strongly these desire-forces may operate within us, inducing even a restlessness of nature *urging*

towards action. The vital point here is that the urging is all from within. However many the forms in which it may appear, desire is a longing or craving within our nature, bearing witness to our want or dependence on what is beyond ourselves, for the supply needful that we may have satisfaction. Desire is an active force inclining us to absorb or draw towards ourselves what will meet our need. We find indication of this moving power in the lowest forms of organism, even in those stationary forms of life beneath the waters, which draw into a cavity a quantity of water from which they absorb food, afterward expelling the water emptied of its food supply. As we ascend the scale of life we see appearing among animals desire for different sorts of food. When we consider our own case we find that our desires are, in many respects, quite similar. Our longing is in reality for a personal gratification which is felt to be urgent, as if it were a pressing matter for the time. It is this feature which needs watching in order to keep control of ourselves. If, then, we notice our own position and the working of our desires, just as we observe the habits of lower forms of life, we see that certain objects and circumstances rouse desires, apart from our own choice, urging us strongly to seek our own satisfaction. Desires rise spontaneously, many of them acting as blind forces urging in a single line for a single end, which is self-gratification. Other ends may be served at the same time, and we may see these additional ends quite clearly, and may take them into account too, but desire shows itself by movement for the one end of gratification.

Having in this way fastened down quite clearly the nature of the force and the law of its working, we are able to look around on the different kinds of desire. It is at once apparent that they are very varied in our experience, being much more numerous in us than in any lower order of life we notice. Judged merely by its wants and by the desires craving supply for themselves, human life is greater in a vast measure than any other life moving in the same sphere. The difference in our favor is seen to arise from the intelligent nature given us. While desire runs into all departments of our activity, our nature is so richly varied as to involve great variety of wants, so that we are not left to be constantly affected by physical desires. To eat, drink, toil, and sleep, are all requisite things for men, but the four put together do not give any fit representation of a human life. If there are many human beings in which these four make up the most of life, the state of things is inconsistent with the nature man has; and however unfavorable his lot, the individual must be seriously responsible for such a state of things.

The religion of Jesus Christ comes to all men and is for all men, goes into the core of life, showing that God's best gifts are for all, while all are fitted to appreciate them in a measure, and to advance in this appreciation by use of their intelligent nature. It is when we look at this higher nature that we begin to see how high the desires of men ascend. If desire is a mark of want and weakness, it may also be a mark of greatness, for a nature is great according to the things desired. The marks of weakness must belong to all creatures even the highest, for an active life implies an end in view, and this a want; and thus of God alone can it be said that he has no desire, and that the end He seeks is not in Himself, but in and for His creatures.

Now, let us observe the breadth and variety of human desires. Their diversities come out to view when we consider the powers and possibilities of our nature. All powers are made for action, all involve possibilities, and hence it comes about that desire in some phase is associated with them all.

Accordingly it happens that any power one develops is found to carry with it a widening range not only of activity, but also of interest involving desire. We best succeed in finding a stand-point whence we may have a full view of the whole complexity of our nature, when we rise up to a survey of the place and work of our intelligence. The wealth of our nature flows from this characteristic. Our intelligence discovers the unity of our life, and going down to make account of the lowest of our desires it is capable of lifting these up to the level where intelligence makes account of ends, including others beside self-gratification. Our life, while it is one, involves in a sense two lives, our life proper which is an intelligent life and our physical or bodily life. The one we govern personally, the other we do not fully, for the bodily life implies the constant action of vital organs, such as the heart, lungs, and brain, over the activity of which we exercise either no directing power, or we direct without knowing how we do so. All we can do in management of our bodily organism is to take our food, attend to physical exercise, and observe the laws of health; all the details of activity within our organism are provided for under laws which fulfill their own part.

But whenever desire arises even from the body, every such desire takes a place in our life proper as a thing we feel and observe, inclining us toward activity, and calling for self-directed control. This applies to hunger, thirst, and sexual desire. These originate from our animal nature. They arise in us under conditions similar to those in which they arise in merely animal life. But since we are not mere animals—since we are pre-eminently and essentially intelligent beings—these bodily desires are not in us what they are in the lower animals. They belong to an intelligent life—the intelligence goes down to take account of them, and to lift them up to the level of a rational life. In our experience intelligent life is in them. In such a life as ours its proper unity requires that bodily desires shall not be gratified as mere blind impulses or restless cravings, but only with a rational and uniform regard to their ends, and to the fitness of things. It is in these relations, and in harmony with them, that we recognize the fitness and practical value of modesty, as it checks and guards the relations of the sexes in human society, and of moderation as applying to our eating and drinking.

If these things be true even in reference to our lowest desires, they must apply as we rise in the scale of power belonging to us, when our desires come to be concerned with the good of others, and with the development of our nature including desire of knowledge and of esteem and of power. All these are personal desires essential to an intelligent being. Over all these the government of a rational nature must be manifest, if our life is to find its unity by the ascendancy of intelligence.

Immediately above these desires or longings must be placed a higher order of motive forces commonly named *AFFECTIONS*. These have not our own gratification as their end; they originate in us as we contemplate the characteristics of other persons, and experience accordingly attraction towards them, or revulsion of feeling. These affections are the dispositions natural to us in occupying our place in society, as we are influenced by the disposition, character, and conduct of others. The action and reaction of feeling apparent in these dispositions, enable us to classify them easily, as they manifest a double or contrary phase of active feeling, according to the view we form of persons and of their doings. Their whole meaning and force can be seen by use of the two words attraction and repulsion. There is an admiration or a disapprobation each of which carries with it

an appropriate form of feeling, inclining us to outward action suitable to the disposition within us. Placing such affections in double form to show how the one is the contrary of the other, we may enumerate them thus: love and hate; reverence and pity. If the character of a person is distinguished by many excellencies, as when he is amiable, generous, brave, and noble, our admiration of him awakens in us love—so prominent is this amongst our dispositions that we often give to it the general name of "affection." If a man is selfish, treacherous, cruel, and cowardly, our bad opinion of him awakens hate, for it is not only morally impossible to admire him, but we cannot trust him, must shun his company, experiencing that revulsion of feeling which we properly name hate. A similar contrariety is found in the next group, reverence and pity. When the person is lofty in character, far-reaching in his view of things, and devoted to the good of others, with a constant, self-sacrificing devotion, we experience that loftier affection which we name reverence, and in consciousness of which we seem to become more fully sensible of the greatness of our own nature. These, then, are the forces of our nature, which, as they depend upon intelligence for their exercise, act readily and powerfully in the service of intelligence, in the midst of varying social relations.

In the observation of their working there is a question of morals which will arise at once to all minds trained under the influence of Christianity. Is there a natural hate to be regarded as a necessary feature in our human constitution? And if there be, how can this be shown to harmonize with the teaching of our Lord; how can the activity of such an affection be consistent with the harmony of moral character? The difficulty appears thus: According to the constitution of our minds, our "likes" and "dislikes" are necessarily related; if we value one set of qualities, we must dislike their opposites; hence hate is as natural to us if there are qualities hateful, as love is natural when we view qualities lovable. At the root of this difference of affection lies the contrariety of moral quality in the actions and in the characters of men. If the difference between right and wrong is the difference of complete antagonism, the affections appropriate to the contemplation of these opposites must be opposite. Hence hate is as natural and morally sound as love. Indeed, we may say, if love be the fulfilling of the law, hate is the complement of love, and must so continue until the hateful disappear from our view. A genuine hatred of evil is a necessary accompaniment of our love of holiness.

Now, as the grand characteristic of the moral life inculcated and exemplified by Jesus Christ, we have the ruling maxim, "Love your enemies, bless them that curse you, do good to them that hate you, and pray for them which spitefully use you and persecute you; that ye may be the children of your Father which is in heaven; for he maketh his sun to rise on the evil and on the good, and sendeth rain on the just and on the unjust." Here then, is the form of difference, according to our nature we must hate the evil; according to the command of Jesus we must love even the worst. If we look deep enough, we shall find that these two things are consistent; that the natural hate is consistent with the cherishing of the Christian love. Our Lord is not condemning the hate of evil, nor even of the wicked, who may be described as "a generation of vipers," while He is insisting that love must be the ruling motive even in our hatred. By way of lessening the difficulty here it is commonly said that we must hate the action but not the person. The statement is so far good as to point to the truth in the case; but it is too concise to be correct. There is nothing in the evil deed except what is

put in it by the agent. If we hate the deed, we must hate the disposition which led to it. In fact this disposition is itself an action—the real action in the case; and any condemnation we pronounce and any dislike we cherish, must apply to the person. The source of the evil is there, and we must hate it even as we hate the evil in our own character; for as the Christian law requires us to love our neighbors as ourselves, so conversely we are to hate our neighbors as ourselves. This is the sure test of the sound ethical love and hate. The good is the measure of both, and good must be the outcome of both, the sole difference being that in the one we love the holiness of character, in the other we hate all that hinders its attainment. But there is no person, however bad, who can reasonably be regarded as the object of hate alone; for there is in all men so much of intelligence and will, so much of reverence and love, implanted within by the holiness of God, that we cannot rightly regard human nature if we do not see that love to all is a necessity of a healthy moral life; and this is a love so strong that it can bear to term hatred as the evil within the character, so as to aid in deliverance from it.

From the affections we rise to the highest class of motive-forces—those which come from our intellectual nature. These are JUDGMENTS, capable of being grouped in two classes: judgments of self-interest; and judgments of duty.

The lower group includes all those judgments of expediency which concern our interest. We reasonably make account of our health and property and enjoyment. No man lives without constant sense of the interest which these awaken, and of the strength with which this interest urges to activity. Self-interest! No one is indifferent to that. Without it life would not be what it is intended to be in attractiveness; and more than half the work done in the world would be left undone. We need the work, for we need all that it produces; and we have reason to be thankful that it quickens the energy of life so greatly, and gives to all workers so much of the glow of the sunshine and so much of the inspiration of hope. That it may do its work at

the best, there is need for range of observation, thoroughness of reflection, and growing experience of the world and society. Not a blind power can self-interest be; and yet not infrequently it may prove blinding to the interests of others. Competition has its risks, but it has its good discipline, and if it train us in the work of caring for others as we are caring for ourselves, it is well that we see its perils and feel its troubles. To love our neighbor *as ourselves* is the loftiest rule, so may we find in our own judgments of self-interest the measure of the good we may seek to do to others. Still must it be recognized, that judgments of interest are like the desires, self-regarding; so here we must see that there is danger that a regard to self-interest may foster a *selfishness* which is ready to sacrifice another's good—yea, even to inflict on another most grievous wrong, in order that we may gain the gratification on which we have set our heart.

Most readily, then, do we perceive that the crowning motive forces are the judgment of duty and the sense of duty which rises in the mind as we become conscious of the sovereign authority of the law of right. This is the voice of God—the testimony for righteousness—and when the soul moves to that, it feels stirring within it the grandest motive force which can sway the soul of man. This judgment of duty does not ever wear the aspect of restriction, as some seem to suppose. To them it commonly sounds as a warning, rather than an encouragement. It is perpetually a restriction on their energy, ever saying "Thou shalt *not*." But this is only one side of the judgment, and that the lower side with its warning for our own defense and for the protection of many more. But its positive side—the great voice saying with full authority, "Thou shalt"—is discovering to us how grand, how noble, and how full of promise may be the life of man that hears the voice of duty and delights in it; sees the path of duty and walks in it; and beholds the grand end toward which the soul is moving as it is continually climbing upwards toward a perfect righteousness.

(The end.)

End of Required Reading for June.

OBSTACLES TO GOOD LEGISLATION.

BY HON. T. B. REED, M. C., OF MAINE.

Had I been called upon to write this article before the beginning of this session, I should have named as the principle obstacle to any legislation at all, the very rules of the House, which under the Constitution we were empowered to make for the orderly transaction of business. For the last six years the House has been under the most severe duress. It had bestowed the veto power, that great prerogative of sovereigns, upon one third of the House, and in many instances upon single members. This system of rules had its origin in the fear which one party had lest its own followers, new to the control of public affairs, should be betrayed into excess, and the fear which the other party had lest some of the safeguards of war legislation should be repealed. Both fears arose from that distrust of popular government, which prevails in this country to an extent seldom acknowledged. The aim of some statesmen has been not to do things good, but to prevent the doing of things evil. It cannot be denied that this aim is quite often a righteous one. But the prevention of evil legislation

should never be by refusing propositions a hearing, but by hearing and refuting. This brings me to remark that some legislation consists not more in what is done, than in what is refused to be done. Whoever thinks that the function of a legislative body in a free country is fully performed by the mere passage of bills, good or bad, has little comprehension of the scope and real usefulness of such a body. The usefulness of our courts of law is not measured by the cases actually tried and decided. Every case fought out in a court settles hundreds outside. Men do justice not from righteousness alone, but from the sound habits which are formed under the wholesome fear of being brought before the courts.

The courts take charge of such of the multitudinous affairs of men as can be comprehended under the heads of general statutes. But there is a vast amount of human action and effort which no general laws have ever comprehended, or ever will comprehend. New complications of affairs are constantly springing up. To get round a statute is almost

as common as "inventing round" a patent. Then as men progress they have new ideas of their own rights and of other people's duties. Capital and vested rights in property, labor and labor associations, are in perpetual conflict. The legislative body may for years pass no laws relating to any of these subjects; but the fact that that body, which represents the average feeling of the community, may at any moment take cognizance of these subjects, of itself makes both sides careful to do nothing which may outrage the general sense of the nation. They are careful to try, at least, to be reasonable in their contests with each other. If the legislature did not sit, those who have unjust power would be swifter to exercise it. Hence the infrequent sessions of a legislature are so much to be desired by those who are at ease in their possessions, and so much to be deprecated by those who believe in the sure progress of the race through full liberty and free agitation. To have a yearly possibility of correction of errors goes far to make them correct themselves.

The legislative body also sits for another purpose. It sits to hear the complaints, and to redress the grievances of the people. And it is of almost equal importance to hear unreasonable complaints, as to hear reasonable ones. The only place to meet falsehood is in the open. There it can be shot. Half the troubles in the world result from misunderstandings, and are all of them from ignorance. There is no such disinfectant as light and air; no such remedy for ignorance as the display of it in the open of day. When you give full and patient hearing to a false grievance, you take the only sound method of cure. A man who has had full opportunity to make known what he thinks is a wrong, and is met by other men who give their reasons for thinking it a right, gets information himself and imparts it to others; and if the legislative body has fully heard him, and decided to do nothing, it accomplishes as much good as if it passed a two-page statute, and often more good. This function of the legislature to hear and decide in the negative, this verdict against innovation, has never been fairly treated. Most people carelessly think the time spent in examining a demand and rejecting it, is time wasted. Such time is never wasted. If such a decision is right, it closes clamorous mouths. If wrong, it shows reformers where their difficulties are, and sets them more intelligently to work for the future. I have intimated that under the old rules the whole duty of a statesman consisted in throttling a measure, and not getting caught at it. Of course a great deal of the old feeling and habit remains and will manifest itself when the session is older and the business begins to crowd.

The reformation of the rules will remove a great many obstacles to legislation. A great many remain to intelligent legislation, using the word in the broad sense in which it has been employed in this article. Among these obstacles is the tendency which now exists to deny discussion in many cases, and the tendency to employ an unsuitable form of discussion in others. A full, frank, and free discussion is the very life of intelligent action. Nobody knows everything; most people know something. Men are circumscribed in their knowledge by their various experiences. If all those who know something of the subject assemble their knowledge, a sensible judgment can be formed by those who listen. But there has been in this country for the past half century, so many subjects of bitter feeling involving bitter words, that the tendency to suppress discussion in Congress by those who have the power, has reached a point where there ought to be a reaction in favor of freer debate. In no other country in the world is such power of shutting off debate, lodged in the majority. The previous ques-

tion has been employed without mercy. It is within the memory of all that until the last few years the House of Commons never had such a thing as the "previous question," in our sense of the term. There was no power in the whole House to close debate. The Irish members simply by talking were able to prevent the passage of bills which had the approval of a vast majority of the House. Even since this strong provocation has caused the introduction of the *clôture*, debate cannot be closed except by the presiding officer, under such circumstances and under such requirements of support from the House as in that body secures a right of debate, which is much greater than in our House of Representatives. The hesitancy with which so slight a measure of suppression was adopted in England, strikes with a shade of surprise an American legislator, accustomed in Congress to see discussion drowned with as little remorse as if it were a sightless kitten. But the English are right. Unreasonable and capricious suppression of discussion is tyranny, whether done by a king or a majority.

There is a form of discussion, however, that goes on in the House, which deserves due reprobation, and that is the reading of written speeches. A vast deal of time is consumed to no business purpose. These things are almost entirely for home consumption. They usually begin at the origin of human affairs, and are full to repletion with that kind of knowledge which takes it for granted that the reader's mind is a blank on the subject. I say "reader's," as it is very seldom that this kind of an oration has any hearers; for when a member pulls out a pile of manuscript, the action, except in rare instances, is regarded as an invitation to the rest of the members to mind their own business, which they immediately proceed, with one accord, to do with all their might. It may be added as a curious fact in natural history, that many a member who has passed a whole hour in reading what nobody has listened to, will beg with pathetic fervor and insistence for another five or ten minutes in which to render himself hoarse by reading what he has full liberty to print. Perhaps it is because, his eyes filled with his own handwriting and his ears soothed and charmed by the melliflence of his own voice, his soul transcends the unworthy House and seems to be pouring itself into the ears of the whole population of the country, variously estimated at from fifty-five to fifty-eight millions. Some day or other the natural historian of the race will take philosophic cognizance of this phenomenon, and to him this solution is timidly but respectfully offered. But the congressman is not entirely to be blamed. In fact, perhaps he is not to be blamed at all. It is only a supply which answers a demand. The fault probably lies with the American people who unreasonably demand that their legislators shall be orators, and shall prove that they are such by visible results. If they only realized how much time was wasted in such efforts, and how little attention was paid to them, they would measure the virtues of their members by other and truer standards.

Another obstacle in the way of making the House a business body, is the absurd place in which the House meets. Imagine a hall so large that the rows of seats around the edge of it in the galleries, will seat more than fifteen hundred people, a capacity excelled by the main floor of comparatively few halls in the country. Imagine also three hundred thirty-three desks on the floor, one for each member, and inside those desks piles of correspondence to be answered, ranging from a request to be informed of the standing of some unknown claim agent in Washington, to a discourse on the right method of removing all the ills of life by opening the Indian Territory to the settler or by the introduc-

tion of a new system of currency. Figure to yourself the absolute necessity of answering all these letters without a clerk, and you will get some idea of the reasons why the speaker hammers his desk to pieces, and yet cannot prevent the whole thing from looking to the graceless outsider like a lunatic asylum. One of the first reforms that is demanded is a smaller hall which will hold the members and will not hold the desks. Of course I am bound to admit that this subject is not to be disposed of by a phrase. It may well be said, as was once said by the Marquis of Lorne while he was looking down on the assembly, that the presence of the desks assures the presence of the members. Yet a large part of the business of the British Empire is transacted by less than a hundred members, and it may be doubtful if it is not as well, or what is more to the purpose, as representatively transacted, as if the whole six hundred twenty-five were present.

This problem which is in a word whether we shall sacrifice business or convenience will soon force its own solution. The last census added twenty-two members to a house of two hundred ninety-three. Twenty-two more men have perceptibly added to the noise, confusion, and unmanageable condition of the House. Speaker Carlisle has a harder task than his predecessor to procure that milder stage of confusion which is deemed "order" in the House. The next census will increase the number of the members, unless some happy accident shall prevent. All the circumstances are enlisted on the side of increase. No state desires to lose a member if by any reasonable addition it can be prevented. Members do not like to be dropped out. The growing states desire to add to their members, and gentlemen already in the House are quite willing that their rivals shall get alongside them rather than displace them. It is also quite a question if any member can, within the limits of his physical strength, attend to the wants, questions, and letters, of more than one hundred fifty thousand people. This last difficulty, however, might be overcome if the people could see the wisdom of allowing us to employ clerks to do the work they demand of their congressmen.

Here, naturally, comes in another hindrance to intelligent legislation. A large measure of the time of a member of Congress is destroyed by the most trivial work. Anybody in his district feels entirely at liberty to write his member on any subject, to ask him to do any errand, and has no idea that his letter will trouble him, but of one hundred fifty thousand possible correspondents a certain per cent will write at the same time, and, aggregated, they are the bane of a member's life. Every day brings that "treadmill" called the morning and evening mail. No intelligent member grudges the time thus spent; for he realizes that not one of his correspondents means to trouble him, and he recognizes the handwriting of many a man who has unselfishly sat up nights and worked days to make him a member. The congressmen from the West whose constituents have much to do with the United States, are almost overwhelmed by such labors. In the Northern States the soldiers who are asking pensions are obliged to have much aid in furthering their claims. They cannot get on in any other way, and many deserving cases have been unraveled and straightened out by the member of Congress, where the claim agent would never have had either the patience or the skill to do the work. Whoever faithfully performed this part of his duty, has been amply repaid by appreciative gratitude. While all these errands and services, which have only been glanced at, are performed for the most part with good will and heartiness, yet they are the moth of time.

Another obstacle to intelligent legislation is the want of

intelligent criticism on the part of the people. This is not directly the fault of the people. They do not know what we are doing, nor the reasons which cause us to act. While in England there is each day a full synopsis of what Parliament does and of what Parliament says, you will look in vain in any American newspaper for such an account of the debates in Congress as appears in the London *Times* or any large London daily of the doings of Parliament. The best account is that of the Associated Press, but it is comparatively meager. Even that account gets so mutilated and cut down by the time it has gone five hundred miles, that one's home papers, so far as they relate to Congress, are often amazing revelations. It is quite possible that Congress is in part to blame in itself publishing all that is by itself said and done. People think all these things can be found because they have been preserved at full length in the *Record*, and so take no pains to epitomize them for daily use. But after a man has once hunted for any particular thing in the Congressional *Record*, he will appreciate the fact that there is no safer place to bury any idea than under that tremendous monument which American legislative eloquence is daily and yearly erecting to the decadence of its proper fame. Ten years ago the whole country was convulsed with rage at what was called the "stealthy" demonetization of silver, and yet the debate on the bill covered more than a hundred of the big columns of the Congressional *Record*, and I have heard men on the floor of the House, who themselves filled not a few of these pages, join in the outcry against what they themselves had done.

I do not discuss here the troubles that private bills give us, for the limits of this article utterly forbid the discussion. It is a dream of bliss that members sometimes indulge in, that they can invent some method of relief by legislation; but probably nothing but a prohibitory constitutional amendment of unrelenting severity could save us from the pressure they put upon us.

Whatever I have thus far enumerated as obstacles are after all the very slightest compared with one which remains to be mentioned. The great obstacle is not inside of Congress but outside. Intelligent legislation implies not merely an intelligent people, but a uniformly intelligent people. Legislation never falls far below the average intelligence of the people, and can never rise far above it. Congress is above all things a representative body. Congress is not the cause of action. It is the resultant. It does not take the initiative. Take one vivid example in our recent history. When the Rebellion broke out Congress was, as it often is, the coward center of the United States. It was only when the great body of the people united to a common purpose began to make known its high resolve that no dismemberment of this nation could be tolerated, that Congress awoke from its paralysis and executed the will of its superiors. The source of its action was the people, and through the whole war the congressional stream never got as high as its source. If the American people desire better results, they must take pains to better know what they want themselves. And so, finally, the solution of the question why Congress does not do better, comes down to the final solution of all questions of progress in religion, in civilization, and in law. The world will never get better in any way except by the diffusion of knowledge among all the people. The world will never get better governed until the knowledge of what good government is becomes more thoroughly spread abroad, not only among congressmen, but among their constituents. Every increase of human knowledge, provided it has been thoroughly diffused among the people, mark the proviso—manifests itself in the laws.

WOMAN'S EXCHANGES.

BY SUSAN HAYES WARD.

The impulse given to American art industries by the Centennial Exhibition made itself felt in art clubs and associations throughout our country. In accord with this impulse to fresh activity came the suggestion of Mrs. Henry Peters Gray, then president of the Ladies' Art Association of New York, to enlarge the scope of that society and form classes in various sorts of artistic decoration, and open a sales-room for any good decorative work done by women.

This idea, taken up with enthusiasm by Mrs. Candace Wheeler, vice-president of the society, and others associated with her, resulted in an entirely independent organization known as The Society of Decorative Art of the city of New York.

The objects of this association as stated in its constitution were, "the reception, exhibition, and sale, of artistic and decorative work; the promotion of decorative art; and instruction in artistic and decorative work and industries."

When the Decorative Art Society, which was organized in March, 1877, had settled down into good running order, it at once became evident that many useful and even beautiful articles offered for its acceptance could not be received. The limitations of the society were marked and positive. The acceptance or rejection of work hinged upon its artistic or decorative quality. Knitting or crochet work, no matter how dainty, if without claim to artistic merit in design or color, must be as rigidly excluded as preserves, pickles, mince-meat, or cake. The Decorative Art Society had no use for work of this sort, however perfect it might be.

Again, much second-rate work not good enough to pass the by no means too strict censorship of the Decorative Art Society, might yet prove salable elsewhere. Faulty work that the critic would carp at, and perhaps utterly condemn, might be pretty enough to please the general public. These were suggestions that naturally occurred to one in a position to observe how much the Decorative Art Society was forced to refuse.

The work of the society while not claiming to be charitable was still benevolent. It established cheap classes for instruction in the decorative arts; and it put into the hands of the good sculptor, painter, carver, or embroiderer ninety per cent of her price, if the work found a purchaser.

With the same benevolent intent, and realizing that but few of the needy women of New York have the artistic hand and eye that could make them welcome contributors to the Decorative Art Society, Mrs. William G. Choate first devised the plan of the New York Exchange for woman's work, where any needy woman's handiwork could be offered for sale, provided she came vouched for by some responsible subscriber.

It was in April, 1878, that the Woman's Exchange thus sprang into being, not out of any ill-will nor as a rival to the Society of Decorative Art, but as a natural outgrowth from it, a younger but vigorous and flourishing offshoot.

Mrs. Choate, who may be called the mother of woman's exchanges, has presided over this society from the first, and has devoted many hours each week to the working out of its details.

The society's rooms were opened May 10, 1878, with thirty articles for sale, the year's rent in the bank, and money enough in the treasury to pay bills, till autumn brought back from the country the well-to-do New Yorker, upon

whose purse and good-will successful sales mainly depended.

A bulletin issued at the end of the first eight months announced more than seventeen thousand articles registered for sale; more than ten thousand dollars receipts; more than six thousand dollars paid to consignors; something over two thousand dollars expenses—the first year's outlay being necessarily larger in proportion than that of ensuing years; and about fifteen hundred dollars left in the treasury.

The principles upon which this, the first woman's exchange of our country, is managed, are as follows:—

The income of the society is derived from donations, always an uncertain quantity, from subscriptions, which must be collected with painstaking care annually, and from a commission of ten per cent on the price of all goods sold.

To put the society upon a firm financial basis a permanent fund of seventy-five thousand dollars is necessary, and is solicited from philanthropic friends of the institution, as donations and subscriptions are variable, and the per centage on sales cannot be expected to cover expenses.

The subscriber of five dollars may enter the work of three persons for one year, all work being entered through subscribers. The annual subscriber may nominate her three beneficiaries, or may waive her right and put the privilege into the hands of the society. Except the consciousness of having helped a worthy cause, this matter of nominations seems to be the only privilege of the annual subscriber.

Work is only received from women who are obliged to support themselves, either wholly or in part. The only exception to this rule is where ladies in comfortable circumstances devote the proceeds of their work to a charity.

Work is received subject to the approval of the managers, that is, the managers reserve to themselves the right of saying at any time that they can receive no more of such and such articles because they are unsalable or because the supply exceeds the demand or for any cause that seems to themselves sufficient. They can also discriminate in behalf of individual work that may be so exceptionally good as to insure a sale, though all other work of its sort might be rejected. They are confined by few rules, and allow themselves large latitude in this matter.

Articles are not kept for more than a year. At the end of that time they must be withdrawn, or they will be returned at the owner's risk and expense, and they cannot be re-entered. The society does not become responsible for losses. Cake, preserves, pickles, and other articles of food must be tested, and will be rejected if they fall short of the society's standard. No preserves are received before October 1, or after April 1. No worsted goods are received after June 1, until October 1.

Consignors put their own price upon articles sent, though suggestions on the part of the society are always in order. Suggestions are made by letter or otherwise, not only to regulate prices but to correct the faults of workers, and to induce them to furnish salable goods.

Orders are taken for linen embroideries, for infants' wardrobes, for covering furniture, hanging draperies, or plain sewing. Through the exchange ready pen-women can be engaged to direct and send out invitations; readers can be obtained to entertain invalids or children; and country women find a market for "produce;" fresh eggs, chickens, butter,

cheese, apples, celery, pies, pickles, and flowers, all being supplied in their season.

Since the first year of the society there has been a steady increase of sales, more than thirty-eight thousand dollars having been taken in last year, an increase of between nine and ten thousand dollars on the previous year.

No sooner was success insured to these two societies, than a score of more or less successful imitators sprang up all over the country. Some were, nominally, mere branches of the Decorative Art Society; but the most of them developed into independent exchanges like that of Buffalo, N. Y., which for the first three or four years of its existence was associated with the Decorative Art Society, but for the past year has stood alone as an exchange. Others have attempted to do the work of both societies under one board of managers, as in Newark, N. J.

These exchanges usually follow the New York plan, and depend upon annual subscriptions and a ten per cent tax on all sales for their support. When these fall short, the managers put their hands in their pockets and help out the funds, or in large towns the public is appealed to through some popular or fashionable entertainment. All, no matter how well managed, feel the need of a permanent fund to put them out of danger of debt.

To obtain a list including every city that supports a Woman's Exchange would not be easy, but I have heard at least a mention, and in many cases have read careful reports, of the exchanges of the following towns:—

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| 1. Albany, N. Y. | 14. Louisville, Ky. |
| 2. Atlanta, Ga. | 15. Mobile, Ala. |
| 3. Baltimore, Md. | 16. Morristown, N. J. |
| 4. Boston, Mass. | 17. Newark, N. J. |
| 5. Buffalo, N. Y. | 18. New Orleans, La. |
| 6. Charleston, S. C. | 19. Norfolk, Va. |
| 7. Chicago, Ill. | 20. Philadelphia, Pa. |
| 8. Cincinnati, O. | 21. Providence, R. I. |
| 9. Cleveland, O. | 22. Richmond, Va. |
| 10. Detroit, Mich. | 23. Rochester, N. Y. |
| 11. Indianapolis, Ind. | 24. San Francisco, Cal. |
| 12. Jacksonville, Fla. | 25. St. Louis, Mo. |
| 13. Kansas City, Mo. | 26. Syracuse, N. Y. |
| | 27. Washington, D. C. |

In the matter of reports the societies differ greatly. The New York Exchange issues no formal yearly report, but an occasional bulletin of four pages at the most, which gives a bare summary of the society's work. For ladies in the rush of fashionable life who have small time to read and less to think, this is perhaps more than sufficient; but there are not a few thoughtful women who would close their hands against any charitable enterprise, no matter how worthy or how ably managed, that failed to publish full and free accounts of its receipts, expenditures, and work.

The most interesting and complete report that I have seen comes from New Orleans. It is painstakingly thorough, giving the annual address of the president of the society; the reports of recording secretary, corresponding secretary, treasurer, house committee (including a list of the house property), visiting committee which critically examines work offered for sale, lunch committee with financial statement, general supply department, being the department where food is sold and from which the luncheon room is supplied, publishing committee and employment bureau; the charter and by-laws and lists of the members and subscribers, with an additional report of the sub-committee that had charge of exhibits at the New Orleans Exposition. Interesting bits of information and courteous recognition of services are not omitted from this model document. On the

single page devoted to the lunch department, which did excellent work during the Exposition, serving admirably fifteen hundred persons daily through January and February, we read:—

"Ninety-two families have been benefited to the amount of eighteen thousand seven hundred nine dollars, fifty-four cents.

"The surplus food amounting to two or three large market baskets full, is sent daily to the Ladies' Unsectarian Aid Society, for distribution among the poor who claim their assistance.

"Five ladies and from thirty-five to forty girls from twelve to eighteen years of age are employed. They are deserving of special commendation for their faithful devotion to duty, and their uniform courtesy and attention, often under trying circumstances."

Attendants at the New Orleans Exposition, who took comfortable and well served meals at reasonable prices at the Christian Woman's Exchange, will recognize the justice of this kindly compliment.

The work of the New Orleans Exchange, as may be seen from this report, is unusually comprehensive; but in breadth of scope it falls far short of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston. The salesroom of this society last year took in fourteen thousand three hundred thirty dollars, fifty-five cents, and its Employment Bureau filled five hundred places, besides examining and recording the facts as to fraudulent or catch-penny advertisements that would be likely to deceive working women. The union includes a befriending committee for aiding women in their individual need of counsel, defense, succor, or sympathy; a protective committee which employs two ladies to hear and examine into cases of fraud or oppression on the part of employers and four lawyers to secure justice to the wronged. Every case brought into court during the past year was decided in favor of the plaintiff. There is also an art and literature committee whose province seems to be to awaken intellectual life, to develop the artistic instinct of women brought under the society's influence and to afford them some opportunity for social culture; and a lecture and class committee under whose care French, German, elocution, stenography, book-keeping, penmanship, drawing, painting, sketching, designing, music, embroidery, sewing, and button-hole-making, dress-making and millinery, are taught in classes. Lectures and social entertainments are in the charge of these two committees.

The hygiene committee provides talks by accredited physicians upon foods, health, the care of children, and the sick. Thirty-four of these "talks" were given during the lecture season last year. The committee on moral and spiritual development holds, Sunday afternoons, unsectarian meetings, opened by singing a hymn, reading the Bible, and prayer, and followed by practical addresses upon ethical topics by women of distinguished ability, besides occasional meetings in the Temporary Home for Working Women. The committee on social affairs received during the year an average of nearly seventy-eight people daily in the reception and reading rooms; it provided a board of directory for women in city, country, or at the sea-side; it received donations of books and papers which were used in the society reading room, or distributed by the sub-committee on visiting the sick, which reports three hundred eighty-two visits, and provided twenty-three free entertainments.

Thus the Educational and Industrial Union of Boston combines the distinctive characteristics of a decorative art society, a woman's exchange, a young woman's Christian

association, a protective union, and a woman's club-house. There are societies in Providence, R. I., and in Buffalo and Syracuse, N. Y., managed upon the broad basis of the Boston union.

The Woman's Exchange and Art Society of Newark, N. J., started five years ago as an educational movement, no less than a bazaar for the sale of woman's work. It formed classes taught by able New York artists in cast-drawing, painting from life, china decoration, and out-of-door sketching, beside Saturday classes for school-children. It opened a circulating library that made a specialty of books helpful to women workers, and it formed classes in embroidery, cooking, literature, French, and wood-carving. Of late, however, this society has devoted its energy mainly to the domestic department of the exchange.

The Chicago Exchange also pays more attention to its cake and fruit department than to any other. Its sales of these articles during January of the present year amounted to over one thousand dollars. One depositor receives from one hundred thirty to two hundred dollars each month for her sales of a single kind of cake. The society's sales for last year amounted to nearly sixteen thousand dollars, while the average sum paid to cake and fruit depositors was about one hundred thirty dollars. A most successful lunch room is maintained by the Chicago Exchange.

Cincinnati also magnifies its department of edibles, finding that "food pays better than fancy articles."

Baltimore, too, reports its cooking department as the most successful, financially. The Baltimore Exchange has supported sewing classes, and like the Philadelphia Society has paid special attention to plain sewing. It has also given instruction in leather work and wood-carving.

In noting how universally the exchanges report success in their food departments, one cannot fail to observe the corresponding fact that this is the only department that maintains a rigid standard of excellence. Ladies readily see the sense of being critical in the domestic department; but when it comes to refusing a paper plaque badly painted in oil, a coarsely hammered brass panel, or undecorative decorated china, their courage fails. "I would not have the thing in my house" says the timid examiner, "but some one may fancy it, for there's no knowing what will sell, and the poor woman needs the money." Yet nearly every one who has done work in connection with a woman's exchange, would endorse the statement of the secretary of the Cincinnati Exchange, "Our experience is that really good work of any kind sells well."

It is a cruel philanthropy that, by accepting poor work, encourages needy women to waste time and material making worthless objects, and debauches the public taste by exposing for sale coarse and wretched attempts at artistic decoration.

Those societies are the most broadly useful that are educational through and through; that have a high standard for work, in every department; that lay the foundation for good work first, by well-taught classes which give a perennial supply of good workers, and, second, by refusing all that is bad and exhibiting only the good. The clever designer, embroiderer, or painter, sees, imitates, and succeeds; the hopelessly tasteless fails, and turns her energies into more profitable and generally into more useful channels. Every poor piece of work received into a woman's exchange injures consignor and exchange alike, and every piece sold doubly injures both.

If asked who are profited by these societies, I would answer that any woman who has no profession and no prestige as a worker, who lives at home and has surplus time of no

money value to herself, might find it profitable to offer her handiwork for sale at an exchange. Poor women, too burdened with family cares to seek custom for themselves, are wisely and efficiently helped by these associations; but an artist of known excellence would find it more profitable to take orders independently, and save the ten per cent discount on her prices. Aged women and invalids find new ways of helping themselves through the woman's exchange; but even the fortunate Chicago consignor who receives from one to two hundred dollars monthly for her "angel" cake, after paying for flour, eggs, sugar, flavoring, and fire, and deducting the ten per cent on her price, cannot have a large proportion of profit left.

There was a feeling among many when woman's exchanges were first established that their benefits should be chiefly confined to the class known in England as decayed gentlewomen. Many women of reduced fortunes, whom false pride forbade to be known publicly as workers, were glad to hide themselves behind the friendly shelter of a contributor's number. Fortunately this feeling seems to be on the wane. Word comes from Baltimore—"Many of the better class of our consignors, who shrank at first from being known as such, are now rather proud than otherwise to speak of it."

The higher the standard of work the sooner this false pride will disappear, as it is a feather in any one's cap to have work approved and accepted by critical judges. What tends more than any thing else to keep up this shame of work, is the short-sighted restriction put upon so many of the exchanges to receive work from the avowedly needy alone. Many choice and beautiful articles made by women of taste and culture are thus shut out, as the makers feel humiliated by the question, "Do you really need this money?" or by the requirement, as in Chicago, that some member of the society shall vouch for the consignor's poverty. In Boston, Cincinnati, and Newark, and, it is to be presumed in the societies fashioned after the Boston plan, no such humiliating conditions are enforced. Mrs. Abby M. Diaz, president of the Boston Union, puts this matter strongly. She says: "Will you receive for sale the work of the well-to-do or only of those who are in want? Of both. There is no principle by which to draw a dividing line. Some may want food and clothes, others, the means of education or of benevolence. The rich woman *may* devote her earnings to philanthropy; the poor woman *may* spend hers in various unworthy ways. The seemingly rich may be poor and shrink from acknowledging it. The probably better work of the richer woman will help educate the poorer woman, and will attract purchasers. Market criticism will stimulate both to their best efforts, and by thus ensuring progression benefit both, and be a service to the public. Also for the well-to-do to place their work on sale helps to make labor honorable and to remove dividing lines.

In the realm of work, as in the Kingdom of Heaven, questions of sex or wealth or station are not pertinent, and in the reception of work at an exchange the only allowable test-question should be, "Is it good or bad?" It is the fault of these "cold, merchantable days" that "is it salable?" is the avowed test-question of the average woman's exchange.

In this paper I have considered only the so-called woman's exchanges. But few of them retain the department of decorative art with classes, out of which the woman's exchange first sprang. But in many cities, side by side with the woman's exchange, there exists the decorative art society, pure and simple. Of such societies the scope of this paper has not allowed me to take note.

FOREST DESTRUCTION AND AQUACULTURE.

BY WILLIAM MILL BUTLER.

The trees annually sacrificed in this country to make five hundred sixty million dollars worth of fuel and lumber—not to mention from sixty thousand to one hundred thousand acres cut down every year to meet the demand for railroad ties, nor the acres burned by forest fires and for clearing purposes—constitute a terrible drain upon our natural resources, a drain that is felt in the East as well as in the West. Take a few examples at random:—

In Ohio the amount of clearing, from 1870 to 1881, was five million acres, and at the latter date but four million seven hundred thousand acres of woodland remained. During the year 1884 alone, the damage caused by floods in the state amounted to sixty million dollars. Its southern portion has ceased to be the great fruit country it formerly was; its climate is becoming more and more unsteady, and should the hills be deprived of the rest of the protection which the forests afford, one half the area of the state will be sterile in less than fifty years.

In Kentucky the Hon. Cassius M. Clay remembers, when the forests were hardly broken, that springs of water were very frequent and perennial. The rivulets and creeks and rivers had a perpetual flow. Now they are dried up in summer; not one spring in one thousand remains. The destruction of the forests has lost to the state that bed of leaves which was a perpetual reservoir. The rain-fall rushes off at once, sweeping the soil into the Mississippi delta. The dry winds absorb, not only the ancient humidity of the air, but drink up the subsoil evaporation, so that the winters are longer, more changeable, and unendurable. Corn, formerly planted in March, can hardly safely be planted late in April, and drouth too often ruins all.

Of Massachusetts Professor Sargent, of Harvard, says: "As moderators of the extremes of heat and cold, the benefits derived from extensive forests are undoubted, and that our climate is gradually changing through their destruction is apparent to the most casual observer. Our springs are later, our summers are drier and every year becoming more so; our autumns are carried forward into winter, while our winter climate is subject to far greater changes of temperature than formerly."

Our own Empire State furnishes a refutation of the curious assertion that "there is no proof that the amount of rain-fall is diminished by the destruction of forests." While conducting the Adirondack survey Mr. Verplanck Colvin, superintendent of state surveys caused systematic observations of the rain-fall to be taken daily at a number of stations in the northern district of the state, during a period of five years. He reports a decrease in the rain-fall in thirty-four years of 14.45 inches in Clinton County, and adds: "During this interval a great portion of the forest in Clinton and adjacent counties has been cut away and removed." The preservation of the Adirondacks is therefore shown to be essential to the proper and regular maintenance of the existing rain-fall and of the normal flow in the Hudson, the Mohawk, and their tributaries, as well as the great canals of the state.

The plain fact of the matter is, that as the destruction of Lebanon and the other forest ranges of Palestine rendered the Holy Land arid and desolate; as one third of the entire area of Spain was made unfit for agriculture by the denudation of the sierras and mountain slopes, in the time of the

Moorish kings; and as the entire eastern coast of the Adriatic was reduced to sterility by the devastations of the Romans, who razed its forests for the foundation props of Venice—not to mention the artificial deserts of China, India, Persia, and Algeria—so the reckless destruction of the wooded portion of our own country, which has been going on for many years, will surely be followed by great and evil consequences throughout its length and breadth, unless a practical and general substitute for forests be applied as a remedy. The fact that such evil consequences are already made manifest in even the most favored localities might well occasion our gravest apprehensions, were we not prepared to call attention to a way out of the difficulty—an already demonstrated theory much more startling than that which makes our agriculture, and consequently our national prosperity, dependent upon the planting of trees.

Irrigation has been for many thousand years the great artificial means for supplying moisture to the arid regions of the earth. The annual overflow of the Nile and the benefits derived from it, probably first suggested the art to the Egyptians, and other nations learned it from them. There are many allusions to irrigation in ancient Egyptian, Hebrew, and oriental records, and in Latin and Greek authors; and remains have been discovered of ancient irrigation in many countries of Europe and Asia, and in some parts of Northern Africa. In Persia and China its history is also very ancient. The labor of building the pyramids sinks into insignificance by the side of the human energy expended in these countries in thus grappling with the devastating forces of nature, staying the hands of drouth and famine and pestilence, and keeping alive myriads of human beings and lesser creatures.

Even in modern times, with improved appliances, the money and labor devoted to irrigation is enormous. The British government has for years encouraged vast works for this purpose in its Indian possessions, and the investment has been an immensely profitable one. Some of the works upon the great Ganges Canal are among the most gigantic hydraulic operations ever executed. In 1878 nearly ten million acres were under irrigation in six presidencies and provinces of India, about four million acres in Italy, and probably nearly as many in France, while Belgium and other Old World countries were also largely engaged in the profitable enterprise which enhances the rental value of land one third or more. Even in the United States much attention is now paid to irrigation, especially in that portion in which Mr. Chamberlain sees an urgent need for forest protection. The Mormons of Utah have long employed the art to render their barren territory fertile, and in California and Colorado determined efforts have been made in late years to secure its blessings.

Irrigation, ancient and modern, as is well known, has been maintained by visible water supplies, whether natural or artificial, such as springs, brooks, rivers, cisterns, reservoirs, etc., all above ground, and irrigation itself has generally consisted in the application of the waters to the surface of the soil. Now all this is to be changed, and a citizen of the Empire State stands ready to show how it is to be done.

This venerable man has lived to perfect his discoveries, which are the reward of over thirty years of study and research, and to give the world a new system, combining the

gathering in of the waters, their application to the soil by means of irrigation, and their storage for other uses, in a manner so simple and yet so wonderful that the world may well stand amazed. All is done *under ground*, and therein lies the secret of the revolution which would make this country blossom as the rose even though its forests should be for a time all wiped out of existence.

Never was there a prophet who believed more firmly in his mission than this quiet, industrious investigator who has been studying the soil with a view to solving his problem. How shall the earth's water supply be saved and used instead of wasted? In his early childhood he had noticed that springs smoked in midwinter, and that evaporation went on amid frosts. He had heard of oases in the desert and longed to grow them; of artesian wells, and was not satisfied till he saw one. While still a youth he had witnessed, personally, the fearful effects of drouth and pestilence in one of the western states. He had read of the conditions along the Alps where, underlying in pockets of soil, the water coming from melting snows furnished moisture and growth for the vine. Dakota's wheat-fields with their deep-laid foundations of frost had not escaped his attention, and the warm suns of March and April shining upon those fields and bringing early germination and steady growth until harvest time, had told him the story of the waters beneath at spring-water temperature.

Later on in life he had heard his personal friend, Horace Greeley, tell of a valley in southern California, watered by a subterranean river and green and fertile beyond compare, while all around it was desert waste, and the story confirmed his previous impressions, and led him more strongly than ever in the right direction. When Mr. Greeley returned from his famous overland journey to California in 1859—a journey which he undertook chiefly to satisfy himself whether there existed in fact an American desert—he was fully impressed with the vast resources of the region, and full of hope that at some future day means would be devised by which the great waste might be reclaimed and developed. He called attention to the oceans of water descending in rivers of ceaseless flow from the melting snow and ice on the summits of the great mountain ranges. This supply might be arrested, held back, and used to water the land, he argued, if solar evaporation could be overcome. "But dam up these waters as you may, and hold them as you will, or move them forward, that tongue of fire which comes from a sky completely cloudless from April to November, with the mercury ranging from 80 to 150, leaves little hope of such a system of water preserve and supply as will gather them in for mechanical, manufacturing, and mining purposes, to say nothing of domestic uses or those of irrigation." This well-nigh hopeless view was entertained by the great journalist up to the time of his death.

But his friend and fellow-worker in the world's vineyard labored on. He evolved the plan of providing for a covering of earth on the mountain side, as well as in the valleys, to shield the waters from the sun. He found out how lands were reclaimed in the region of the Dismal Swamp; he studied the construction of the dikes of Holland, the cutting of peat in the Irish bogs, and the irrigation and drainage systems of all countries. And the more he studied the greater appeared to him the folly of the people of this country, who seem almost mad in their haste to get the waters out into the rivers and oceans instead of using them on land. This is especially so when it is borne in mind that the summer rain-fall of our climate is rarely, if ever, adequate to what would be a maximum crop consistent with the possibilities of the soil.

It was but half-a-dozen years ago that Mr. Cole finally perfected his system, and prepared to put it into practical operation. He had purchased a steep and sterile farm on a hill-side, near Wellsville, Allegany County, the soil of which was surface-washed and gullied by heavy rains, and sun-baked in dry weather. Upon this most unpromising spot he laid out a new Garden of Eden. Along the wretched hill-side he dug a series of trenches about a rod apart, each a yard wide and from three to five feet deep. At the bottom of these trenches he placed loosely cobble and blocky stones for a foot or two, then flat ones, and over these a quantity of smaller stones, which were in turn covered with sod or turf, brush, straw, or other material to prevent the fine earth from falling into the crevices between the stones. The excavated soil was placed on top, and then a series of cross or overflow trenches was built, not so deep as the reservoirs, and each filled with small stones, and shingled with flat ones.

This net-work of under-ground ditches he gradually extended over five acres, and the result is that he catches and holds back the waters from dews and rains and melting snows falling upon that much of his hill-side trenched, and the water, after an equable filtration through the soil, is released at the foot of the slope in a never-failing stream of pure water at spring temperature. The soil, thus treated, has been changed from one of the most barren and unproductive spots in the state into the most valuable piece of ground of its size, not under glass, in the world, producing gigantic fruits and plants where pigmy vegetation once eked out a miserable existence. The transformation has been most marvelous, and proves conclusively that the remedy applied is many times better than the best hitherto known, for the purpose of replacing lost water supplies and restoring arid places to fertility.

A forest in a natural state forms a great reservoir admirably adapted to receive and distribute large supplies of moisture. Its bed, piled with thick layers of leaves, twigs, fallen branches, and remnants of decayed logs, becomes a deep pot or hollow frame-work, filled with myriads of pipes, tubes, and aqueducts, interspersed with millions of miniature logs that obstruct and hold in position the waters, until they are absorbed by the *humus* below. Mr. Cole's five acres has stowed away in its bosom, ready for immediate work, the improved machinery of a whole forest, which it would take many years to grow. It does not require the giving up of any part of the land to the planting of trees. Thus the benefits of the forest many times multiplied, and the benefits of the land cleared and cultivated to produce bread, with a capacity increased from three to five fold, are realized on one and the same spot.

What a field is thus presented for the operations of the aquaculturists of the future! The United States government has many times been urged to reclaim the western arid region, by means of irrigation, and render it fit for the occupation of millions of people where thousands now subsist.

The discoverer of the way in which it may be accomplished is of the opinion that not only the national government, but the great railroad corporations to which prodigal grants of land have been made, should enter at once upon the work of reclaiming the desert. Were but a beginning made—a few acres deeply trenched upon the treeless mountain sides of Montana, Dakota, or Wyoming—the wonders effected in a few years would soon cause the vast plateau from two to four hundred miles wide lying at the base of the Rockies, as well as the regions beyond, to be numbered among the garden spots of the world.

A few years ago, while on his way to California, Mr. Cole had an opportunity to personally view this vast land of promise,

once so enthusiastically, as well as despairingly viewed, by his friend, Horace Greeley; and what he saw not only confirmed the reports of its vast resources, but made him more than ever sanguine that the day of deliverance is at hand.

It will, no doubt, require money to regenerate the earth by means of the new science, but the expense will be moderation itself when compared with that attendant upon the construction of the works for common surface irrigation in arid regions. The farmers of the United States, in 1882, expended five million five hundred thousand dollars for tile, and dug nearly fifty-three thousand miles of drain to put it in, all for the purpose of hastening the exit of the waters toward the sea. Had they devoted the money thus expended, or but half of it, to subsurface water preserves and irrigation, so that three quarters of the rainfall should no longer escape paying tribute to their crops, what an advance would have been made toward the new era of prosperity! We have already alluded to the millions annually expended by the British government, in India, for irrigation purposes. Holland has always deemed her investment of sixty million dollars in dikes a good one. Our own government, from 1789 to 1882 inclu-

sive, expended one hundred five million dollars for river and harbor improvements. Had a proper share of that sum been laid out in holding back the waters on the hill-sides, so as to insure an equable flow into our navigable rivers the year round, who can doubt that there would be no necessity now for an annual dredging and deepening of channels?

Already there has come a frank recognition of the merits of this system from men of eminent scientific attainments, who have visited the once barren hill-side in Allegany County. Dr. Roberts, professor of agriculture in Cornell University, recently declared that "Mr. Cole does all he claims to accomplish." The Hon. Charles R. Early, of Pennsylvania, sees in the system, not only vastly increased possibilities for agriculture, but death to all fungi that prey on animal as well as plant life; and the Hon. John Swinburne of Albany says: "Mr. Cole's plan is exceedingly simple in detail, and the greatest wonder to any one who shall see or read of it, will be that it had not been thought of, developed, and adopted long before. Eventually a grateful people, thankful for the blessings his discovery has brought to their hands, will rank him as a benefactor of the human race."

MONUMENTS OF AMERICA.

BY CLARENE COOK.

The memorials erected to our famous dead, our statesmen, our heroes and martyrs, our poets, our orators, our men of science—what are they? What ought they to be? How, in the future, when we come to erect similar tributes to departed worthies, shall we profit by the example of our few successful undertakings in this field? How shall we escape the contagion of our many mistakes?

As the historic sense is more and more developed among us; as the conviction of the great debt we owe these makers of the nation deepens and spreads; as the feeling for art begins to push out more vigorous shoots, and to open a shy flower here and there in the sunshine of a growing prosperity and milder manners—these questions become of interest to more and more of us, and it is of practical importance that we should try to answer them.

When it is considered how short a time has elapsed since these states were first welded into the rude outward form of a nation, it is surely to our credit that art was so early given a place among us, and that it has kept it so well. But in the early times there was seen this curious state of things: many of our native artists of best promise left us and went abroad, either to live or to study, while foreigners, chiefly Frenchmen and Italians, came over here to lay out our cities, design our public buildings, and make statues of our public men. Both causes worked to destroy the native flavor of our art, and it has never been regained. We have many clever painters and sculptors; we have a few, a very few, men of original talent; but our art is, at the best, only a pale reflection of the art of certain foreign schools. For the most part, our monuments are open to the same criticism as our painting and sculpture; but that this need not be so, the few good works we have produced sufficiently prove. Formerly the cause of our failures was to be found in the scarcity of native talent. The failures of to-day have their source chiefly in the mistaken methods we employ to get what we want.

If we were unfortunate in the matter of painted portraits of Washington—for even the much boasted "Stuart" picture satisfies few people now-a-days,—we were more than fort-

unate in his sculptured likeness, since the statue by Houdon is not only a noble work in itself, but is commended to our judgment by comparison with the swarm of crude native attempts at portraiture, as a true likeness of the man—our country's father—in his habit, as he lived. It was a part of our good fortune that the choice of a sculptor fell on Houdon rather than on his contemporary, Canova, and so we were saved from a mate to the Italian's deified Napoleon. Houdon's "Washington" is no mock Olympian, who

"Assumes the god,
Affects to nod,
And seems to shake the spheres."

His dignity and serenity are plainly native to the man. We were fortunate, too, in the men to whom the commission to choose a sculptor for the work proposed by Congress, was entrusted. Franklin and Jefferson invited Houdon to undertake the statue, and the choice did honor to their perception. There was no competition, and so far as we know, none of the maneuvering that takes place now-a-days, whenever a public memorial is proposed. Of course, the explanation is simple. There was no one in America who could have done the work; no one who even pretended to be a sculptor. The tribe of connoisseurs, amateurs, and critics, so profusely represented to-day, hardly existed then; and that "backing of one's friends" which so harasses the choice of commissioners in this age, was unknown. So late as 1818, John Adams probable spoke for more than himself when he wrote Binon, a French sculptor, who had applied to him for permission to take his portrait in marble: "The age of sculpture and painting has not yet arrived in this country, and I hope it will be long before it does so. I would not give a sixpence for a picture by Raphael or a statue by Phidias." Such were the old man's words; but his acts were different. He invited the sculptor hospitably to Quincy, sat to him for his bust, and showed real kindness by consenting at his advanced age to have a mould taken of his face, in plaster—a most disagreeable experience. We may remark in passing that Binon—whoever he was, for this is the only mention I can find of his name—made a

very characteristic bust of John Adams, which is now in Faneuil Hall, Boston.

If we are disposed to criticise the way in which Adams spoke of the arts, let us remember that Jonathan Trumbull, about the same time, when an aspiring marble-cutter, John Frazee, was introduced to him, said that "nothing in sculpture would be wanted in this country for a hundred years." Yet Trumbull was then vice-president of the New York Academy of Fine Arts, and surely if he saw little that was promising in the outlook for the art of sculpture in the country, John Adams may be excused for a like incredulity.

No other statue of Washington has been so successful. The statue made by Sir Francis Chantrey and which stands in the rotunda of the State House in Boston, is a less pretentious work than the colossal "Washington" of Greenough; but it is marred by the same fatal defect of conception, since the subject is treated not as a modern, but as an antique, hero. The figure is draped in the ample folds of the Roman toga, and whatever likeness there may be in the head is obscured, if not nullified, by the absurdly incongruous costume. This incongruity strikes us as more unfortunate in the case of Washington than it might be in that of another man at another time, for the reasons that he was remarkable for the fine proportions of his tall and well-knit frame, which is here smothered in drapery and hid from sight; and that in his time the dress worn by gentlemen was of so conventional and formal a style as to be the very opposite of the type made common by the classical draped statues.

With the great increase in the number of artists in this country, the system of competition for the execution of public monuments has naturally come to be employed in preference to the direct giving the commission to one man. What John Adams would say if he were to be shown the many statues that have been set up all over the country since he wrote to Binon, is amusing to think, seeing that the old man had a temper of his own, and made no bones of speaking his mind!

It is certain, he would have been justified in saying hard things of by far the greater part of the public monuments scattered over our land. Between commissions given directly to unworthy artists, often to people who have no remotest claim to the name of artists, and commissions awarded in competitions presided over by ignorant and unfit persons, we have certainly fared ill—the wonder may well be expressed that we have not fared worse. The room in the Capitol that contains the statues presented to the government by the several states, is certainly a melancholy place to visit. Yet even here are a few respectable works; and one of them, though not belonging to the same category with the rest, the statue of Thomas Jefferson by a Frenchman, David d'Angers, is a work fit to mate with "Washington" by Houdon. This statue, which has a curious history, stood for a long time in the grounds of the White House, or near by, and was put under cover in the Capitol only when it was found that it was suffering severely by exposure. It is a masterpiece by one of the most distinguished of modern French sculptors, and is much less known than it deserves to be.

It would be too long to enumerate even the public statues that have been erected in this country within the last twenty years. Whatever may be considered the artistic value of the mass, it is not to be denied that the result is valuable as education. A school of artists has been produced, and the public has been interested in the subject, and has learned to use its critical powers in a way that is sure in the end to prove of great advantage. Not a few of the early statues, the work of native talent, were poor productions, but their

badness was of a negative sort, and it was neither aggressive nor insolent. There was something healthy and encouraging, too, in the enthusiasm and zeal with which these early works were welcomed. It certainly was better that the wooden figure-heads of Powers and Crawford should be greeted with bursts of feeling and patriotic admiration, than that they should have been treated with the indifference which now we know they deserved! They do not exactly concern us here, because they had small public employment, although Crawford's hand appears in the decoration of the Capitol at Washington, and he made an equestrian statue of Washington for the city of Richmond, and a statue of Beethoven for the Boston Music Hall.

The success of these men, applying themselves to a kind of work not much known here before their time, has given encouragement to many others, and we no longer lack for sculptors. The danger now lies in another direction—the invasion of speculating stone-cutters and brass-finishers into the field, passing, off their "jobs" upon a busy and rather indifferent people as "art." The great increase in the number of "soldiers'-monuments" undertaken by the smaller cities and towns, has opened up a fruitful field for these gentry, and they have too often been allowed to take possession. As a rule these monuments are models of meaningless design, disproportioned parts, and clumsy execution, too often hopelessly disfiguring the one open space or pretty bit of turf and trees belonging to the town. There is, of course, a way of looking at these unhappy objects, which is at least healthy and hopeful, if it have no other recommendation. We learn from them honestly the exact condition of the community that has set them up, as to taste and sensibility to art. And we may reasonably hope that starting from a desire to express in an artistic form their feelings of patriotism and gratitude, and having done the best they could with their opportunities, they will in time do something better.

We ought to take sincere encouragement from the fact that in one case, at least, a bad work of art has been deliberately removed from its pedestal and broken up for the melting-pot. It is the first instance we have ever heard of where such a thing has been done in obedience to criticism. The abominable caricature of that noble man and gallant soldier, General Custer, erected at West Point, has been subjected to the treatment we have described, in compliance with the long continued complaints and entreaties of his high-spirited widow. It was an intolerable public nuisance, and it was a happy day when it was righted. But it will be but of little avail to have pulled down one bad statue, if we keep on putting up others as bad. When we see the row of statues that deface the Mall in the New York Central Park, one of the most ridiculous being that of Halleck the poet, by the same hand that made the Custer, we are not much encouraged to hope for better times. Ward's mincing Shakspeare, the writhing and contorted wind-bound Burns, the Scott with a gourd for a head—this is a melancholy show for a city like New York. And she has more of the same sort in plenty. But then she has the Washington by Henry K. Brown and the Farragut by St. Gaudens, and though the proportion of sack to bread is large, let us be thankful that there is any bread at all.

Of other public monuments than statues we can boast but few, and that is subject for congratulation, seeing how ill we have succeeded with these few. What we have done thus far shows a poverty of ideas that would be discreditable to us, if it were not in part explained by the accidental character of all these undertakings, and by the fact that we have not yet hit upon the right way of proceeding. Take the

Washington monument, for instance, one of the most unfortunate things of the sort ever built anywhere. It has been an accident from the start, and is entirely a different affair now from what it was at first planned. It has only its immense height to recommend it, and it does not look its height, because its uninterrupted lines give no means for calculation. The eye goes with one sweep from base to summit, and whatever the guide-book may say, the imagination declares that Strasburg and the Pyramid are higher than this exaggerated factory-chimney. Want of plan and the absence of a controlling mind have given us this mere mechanic monster, where we had a right to hope for a work of art.

The Statue of Liberty is not an American monument, and we are not bound to consider it. There can be no doubt that if the thing was yet to do, and we knew all that we know now, the gift of Mr. Bartholdy would be declined with thanks. Here, again, we see the evil of precipitation; a project like this was one calling for wise deliberation, but

deliberation came too late to be of any practical use. The money raised with so much difficulty, and with so much wounding of our self-respect, will be worse than wasted, for we shall get for it something neither beautiful nor useful. It now looks, too, as if we should not get anything very big. How paltry such a toy will seem compared with the real grandeur of the Brooklyn Bridge!

We cannot escape the record we make of ourselves, and so it is idle to regret the accumulated mistakes that in our public monuments sadly bestrew the land. We have acted out ourselves in these things, and as we improve in education, in right ways of thinking, in the adaptation of means to ends, we shall set up fewer and fewer Custer and Seward and Lincoln statues, and shall set our faces sternly against Washington obelisks, and Bartholdy statues of Liberty. As we learn to understand and love art, we shall instinctively aim to embody our ideas in forms that are agreeable to art; and our public monuments will reflect the light of the new and happier day.

THE NATIONAL MUSEUM.

BY G. BROWN GOODE.

SECOND PAPER.

V.

The department of marine invertebrates is under the care of Mr. Richard Rathbun. Lack of room and time has prevented the development of an extensive exhibition series, and with the exception of a large room filled with the historic collection of corals, little is visible to the public of the work of this very energetic curatorship. A large section of the collections, principally from the work of the Fish Commission, is in the Peabody Museum of Yale College, in care of Professor Verrill. There is, however, a vast remainder of Fish Commission material here also, which, together with the other collections of the department, is stacked away in cellar, garret, and gallery, in systematic labyrinths which the curator and his assistants only understand. The wealth of this department is almost beyond appreciation, and its educational value is particularly great, since all instruction in natural history is now founded upon a study of these simplest forms of animal life. In 1884 forty-eight sets of from two hundred twenty-five to seven hundred eight species of marine invertebrates were distributed to schools and museums. Among the collaborators of this department may be mentioned Prof. S. I. Smith, of Yale College, who studies the Atlantic crustacea; Mr. Walter Faxon, of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, who has the craw-fishes; Mr. J. E. Benedict, naturalist of the Albatross, who has the annelids; Prof. Edwin Linton, of Washington College, Pa., who has the parasitic worms; Prof. L. A. Lee, of Bowdoin College, who has the foraminifera; Prof. A. E. Verrill, of Yale College, who has the Atlantic anthozoa; Hon. Theodore Lyman, of Brookline, Mass., who has the ophiurans, and Mr. J. Walter Fewkes, of Harvard University, who has the hydrozoa.

The department of mollusks is in charge of Dr. W. H. Dall, formerly of the Coast Survey, and Prof. R. E. C. Stearns, formerly of the University of California. This is one of the oldest and most complete departments in the museum, and in scientific value is inferior to no similar collection in the world. The exhibition series is at present limited to twenty table cases on the floor of the main hall of the Smithsonian building, but the study series includes

over four hundred thousand specimens, and is very strong for American, European, and Indo-Pacific regions, besides including a good representation of the molluscan fauna of the remainder of the world.

The department of insects is under the care of Dr. C. V. Riley, formerly state entomologist of Missouri, and chief of the U. S. Entomological Commission, now entomologist of the department of agriculture, aided by Mr. John B. Smith, President of the Brooklyn Entomological Society and editor of *Entomologica Americana*.

The collection of insects is in the main made up of the private collection of Prof. Riley, recently presented to the museum, which includes about one hundred twenty thousand specimens of over twenty thousand species, in addition to six or seven thousand species already in the museum.

The herpetological collections are the most extensive in existence, so far as American materials are concerned. These, too, for lack of room are not placed on exhibition, but are stored in a subterranean laboratory. A series of exquisitely painted casts of American snakes and turtles is shown in the hall allotted to ichthyology. Dr. H. C. Yarrow, of the Army Medical Museum, who is honorary curator, has recently published a catalogue of the reptiles of North America, based upon the materials under his charge, and Prof. E. D. Cope, of Philadelphia, who has been a collaborator in this work for a quarter of a century, has been employed by the Smithsonian to prepare an elaborate monograph of the reptiles of North America, which will be published within a few months.

The department of fishes is under the direction of Dr. Tarleton H. Bean, of the U. S. Fish Commission. This, like so many other of the collections, is crowded into cellars and corridors, and only to a slight extent visible to the public. It is the most extensive collection of fishes in the world, except perhaps that of the British Museum, and is, of course, especially complete for North America. Here are stored the treasures of the Fish Commission, through whose labors over four hundred species of fishes have been added to the fauna of the United States within ten years. An interesting case in this department contains "the trophies of fish-culture," the proofs of the success of various attempts to ac-

climatize species in new waters, or to restore those which had been exterminated. Prof. Theodore Gill, President D. S. Jordan, of Indiana University, and Prof. C. H. Gilbert, of the University of Cincinnati, have for many years been prominent collaborators of the department of fishes.

The department of birds has always been the especial favorite of Professor Baird, the director of the museum, who began his career as an ornithologist forty-three years ago. When he came to Washington in 1851, to undertake the work of forming a museum for the Smithsonian Institution, he brought with him a large collection of birds, including a large portion of the private collection of his friend and master, Audubon, who had given his young disciple this evidence of his confidence. The collection has grown to great dimensions, notwithstanding the fact that many hundreds of specimens have every year been distributed to sister institutions. About one tenth of the collection is mounted in exhibition cases, which are, however, not entirely suitable, being of the pattern in favor a quarter of a century ago. The collection of eggs, including forty thousand specimens, cannot be exhibited, owing to lack of room. Mr. Robert Ridgway, one of the authors of Baird, Brewer, and Ridgway's "History of North American Birds," is curator of ornithology. His principal assistant is Dr. Leonhard Stejneger, formerly of the Bergen Museum, Norway.

The department of mammals is under the curatorship of Mr. Frederick W. True, a graduate of the University of New York, who also has in charge the department of comparative anatomy. These departments make an imposing display in the new museum building. Every species of mammal known to North America is represented, and the series of foreign mammals is rapidly increasing through the co-operation of the superintendents of the several zoölogical gardens, and the proprietors of some of the large menageries. Mr. Barnum has been especially liberal, sending all his animals as they die either to the National Museum, or to the Barnum Museum of Tufts College at Medford, Mass. Among the treasures of this department are the superbly mounted specimens of rare circumpolar species, especially noticeable being the foxes and the musk-oxen, obtained through the Hudson's Bay Company.

The collection of aquatic mammals, seals, porpoises, and whales, is also very complete. The casts of American porpoises hang from the walls and ceiling, chief among them being a *papier-mâché* model of a fin-back whale, forty feet long, which has the skeleton mounted in the cavity of the reverse side. The skeleton of the sea-cow of the North Pacific, which became extinct nearly a century ago, and whose remains were recovered by a special Smithsonian expedition, is also a feature. The exquisite osteological preparations of Mr. Lucas deserve especial attention. Case after case is filled with skeletons mounted in such life-like attitudes that no one, however ignorant of the science of bones, could fail to identify the species, if at all familiar with their appearance when clothed with flesh and fur. To attain a high degree of excellence in the taxidermic departments is one of the especial aspirations of the museum. The magnificently mounted mammals in the American Museum of Natural History in New York, chiefly the work of Verraux, of Paris, cannot be too highly praised. Very little work of this grade of excellence had been done in America at the time this collection was imported. Prof. Ward's establishment in Rochester has, however, produced many admirable pieces of work, and has trained a number of young taxidermists, who have been instrumental in founding the "American Society of Taxidermists" and whose strivings toward a lofty ideal of good workmanship are accomplishing much good. Mr. W.

T. Hornaday, chief taxidermist, and Mr. F. A. Lucas, the osteologist, of the National Museum, are leaders in this movement, and their skill is telling its own story with the exhibition cases.

The archeological collections occupy the upper hall in the Smithsonian building, and are for the most part exposed to public view. The only rival of the National Museum in this department of North American antiquities, is the Peabody Museum of Archeology at Cambridge, which, under the energetic management of Mr. Putnam, is doing a work of great importance. Concerning the endless rows of stone arrow-heads, stone knife-blades, sinkers, mills, mortars, pestles, celts, hammer-stones, hatchets, pipes, and carvings, little need be said except that many thousands of localities in all parts of North America are represented. For purely educational purposes the exhibition series might well be very much decreased in extent. This great treasure house and others of its kind contain, however, the only relics of the people who once held entire possession of this great continent, and it is important that these should all be preserved with scrupulous care. Dr. Charles Rau, an eminent German archeologist, has been the curator of this department since 1874.

The collections in the department of ethnology are of great extent and value. Many native tribes of America although still represented in their physical features by living men, have entirely lost their native arts, which can only be studied by resorting to museums of this character. The Esquimaux, the Aleuts, the Indians of Northwestern America, and those of the Southwest mainly from the work of the Bureau of Ethnology, under the direction of Major Powell, are very extensively represented in the National Museum, and there is much that is valuable from other regions, particularly from the islands of the Pacific, as represented in the gatherings of the Wilkes Exploring Expedition. No other department is so interesting to visitors as this, and the collections are being exposed to view as rapidly as cases can be provided and labels printed. In this as in the closely related department of arts and industries, the arrangement by tribes and countries, so usual in ethnological museums, is only partially carried out. Each occupation or interest of mankind is arranged in a special series of its own; and similar objects from different localities being thus brought side by side, opportunity is given for that minute comparison which is the foundation of all scientific investigation. In the collection of musical instruments, for instance, all stringed instruments being arranged in one progressive series, the advances in complexity from the single-stringed fiddle to the violin, the guitar, and the harp or piano, are evident to every visitor who looks with care, and reflects upon what he sees.

It is impossible within the limits of this article to mention even the general features of interest in the departments of ethnology and arts and industries. No one can form an idea of the character of the collections or the methods of installation, who is not able to spend a day or two in passing from case to case, studying the objects and the labels which explain them. This remark, though especially true of the ethnological collections, applies equally well to other departments of the museum work. The curator of ethnology is Mr. Otis T. Mason, long a professor in Columbian University, and one of the representative anthropologists of America.

Among the special collections in the department of arts and industries are some which must have individual mention. The fisheries collection, in which are shown the fishery appliances of the entire world, occupies an entire hall. This is one of the departments which has a nearly completed

installation and which has had a history of its own, in connection with the participation of our government in the fisheries exhibitions at Berlin and London. It is under the charge of Mr. R. E. Earll, a graduate of Northwestern University. The collection of naval architecture is also very complete, and shows the evolution of the sailing vessel in all quarters of the earth; it occupies a hall of its own and is under the care of Captain J. W. Collins, of the U. S. Fish Commission, and Ensign Everett Hayden, U. S. N. The collections of textiles are also separately installed, and is already of such extent that the half of its wealth cannot be exhibited; the series of the textile fibers of the world is especially complete and interesting. Mr. Romyne Hitchcock, a graduate of Cornell University, is in charge.

The collection of materia medica is separately installed and Dr. H. G. Beyer, U. S. N., is its curator. It is one of the most complete of its kind in the world, and its elaborate systems of labels gives it a decided popular interest, in addition to its value to members of the medical profession.

The collection of animal products is separately exhibited, and is intended to show every application of animals to the uses of man. The collections of furs, leathers, feathers, ivories, shells, pearls, corals, whalebones, and other products of this nature are many of them very beautiful, besides being of practical value to the manufacturer and merchant.

A department is now being organized to illustrate the history of the railroad and the steam-ship, which will be of especial importance in a country whose material prosperity

has depended so intimately upon the influence of steam transportation; Mr. J. E. Watkins, of Philadelphia, a recognized authority upon the history of railroads, is to be its honorary curator.

The collection of musical instruments is separately installed and very complete, especially for India, China, Japan, Siam, and Northern Europe. The collection of historical relics is also shown by itself. Among its features are the relics of Washington, Franklin, and Columbus, the relics of the great arctic expeditions, the original telegraph instrument, and the model of the Whitney cotton-gin.

A well labeled museum is, in very many respects, like a library; in none more so than in that it is impossible for any one to describe its contents in such a manner as to make them intelligible to one who has not examined them.

I have attempted in these articles to give an idea of the spirit which animates the workers in the National Museum, and the objects which they have before them. Some of them are especially concerned in the preservation of the records of past scientific work, and in preparing materials for the use of investigators who are yet to come. Some are intent upon the prosecution of researches which shall yield immediate results to science. Some are striving to place before the public a series of object lessons, which shall convey to the mind a better idea of the world and its inhabitants. The resultant of all these activities is to be, we trust, a National Museum which will in some way minister to the needs of every citizen of the nation.

(The end.)

BETWEEN THE LIGHTS.

BY CLARA THWAITES,

Author of "Songs for Labour and Leisure."

The sunset fires are fading o'er the heather,
The flames of gold and crimson burn away,
Upon the lea the purple shadows gather,
And silence soothes the pulses of the day.

*Toll, curfew, toll! The day of toil is over,
Recall the banished who weary roam;
Chime! bells of peace, and wanderer and rover
Will fondly turn their eyes to rest and home.*

The morning gave us songs and joy and laughter,
The day was feverish with toil and care;
The night is cool, we think of rest hereafter,
And sing our twilight songs upon the air.

*Toll, curfew, toll! And still our fitful fever,
Cover the fires of anguish and of pain;
Peace shall be ours forever and forever,
Sorrow shall never tell her tale again.*

Not yet the stars of heaven in their splendor
Reveal infinity in glorious heights,
Not yet their radiance meets us, pure and tender,
Their rising we await, between the lights.

*Ring, curfew, ring! But not with voice of sorrow.
Utter melodiously our soft farewell
To all that grieves us, for our fair to-morrow
Will fairer be than sweeter tone may tell.*

"Between the lights" we watch, we wait, we ponder,
Till beck'ning gleams from far-off worlds arise;
In hush of spirit we await with wonder
The stary revelations of the skies.

OUTDOOR INDUSTRIES OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

BY CHARLES FREDERICK HOLDER.

Southern California possesses climatic advantages that are found, collectively, nowhere else in the world. Its rivals are portions of Italy, some of the islands of the Atlantic, and parts of Florida at certain times of the year; but in none of these localities do we find all the conditions that characterize this section environed by the Sierra Madre range and spurs. With a latitude of Cape Hatteras it has a climate that combines the agricultural possibilities of almost every quarter of the globe. Here may be seen growing side by side the peach, orange, apple, guava, cherry, banana, olive, currant, fig, walnut, gooseberry, and almond—a strange assortment indeed. The orange is seen upon the tree the year round, ripe and green fruit and blossoms appearing at the same time; the regular crop ripens from January to May, the same being true of the lime and lemon. In June come apricots, peaches, pears, nectarines, currants, and figs; and at the time of writing, February, strawberries are in market, peas are well up, and car loads of ripe oranges are leaving for the East, daily. The grape season commences in July, and lasts until January.

September is the golden month to the lover of fruit, for then can be obtained the greatest variety—grapes, peaches, apples, pears, pomegranates, figs, walnuts, almonds, and many more. It will be seen, then, that almost everything that can be grown in any climate—plants that seemingly require the greatest extremes, hardy, cold-loving pines, and the delicate banana, meet here on neutral ground.

Southern California has a climate unique yet so variable that almost any zone can be found, from the snow-capped peaks of San Bernardino, San Jacinto, and Old Baldy, to the warm and dry *mesas* of Pasadena, Riverside, and others.

In a country with so many possibilities the question what to undertake is a serious one, and on all sides agriculturists are trying experiments. Yesterday I rode through an embryo olive orchard, organized by a large stock company in the East. From it I passed into a prune orchard, and the road to the ranch I was destined for took me through lime, almond, orange, peach, and grape tracts, all within a rifle shot of each other.

The orange culture possesses a fascination to many, and the orange fever, judging from the places about Pasadena, is extremely contagious, the town itself being a succession of orange groves of from five to twenty-five acres. Ten acres is perhaps as much as one man can attend to, and do it well. At present the demand for oranges is increasing, being influenced, perhaps, by the failure of the crop in Florida. Navel oranges, the seedless variety, being two dollars per hundred in small lots bought in the grove, and at this rate must afford good profit, a single tree bearing two thousand oranges being worth four hundred dollars a year, though of course few trees bear this number. A tree thirty feet high has been known to yield twenty-five hundred oranges in one season.

The orange grove is slow of growth; but its value increases with age, and if the planter can maintain himself during the time of growing, a grove is a good investment; as it always sells whether the fruit is in demand or not. In good seasons the large groves about the above mentioned town, realize five hundred dollars an acre; a ten-acre grove producing about five thousand dollars from the fruit alone. This has been done, but the estimate cannot be de-

pended upon. A fifth of this, clear, would be considered profitable by many in the north, who, confined to business, would account the privilege of out-door life as a large part of their gain.

Statistics are not interesting as a rule, but the possibilities of the orange as a factor of wealth are best shown in the following, the result of fifteen years experience:—

10 acres of land (Pasadena Mesa), \$125 per acre, . . .	\$1250.00
1000 trees, \$75 per hundred,	750.00
Ploughing and harrowing, \$2.50 per acre,	25.00
Irrigating and planting,	10.00
Cultivation after irrigation,	4.50
Three subsequent irrigations during the year,	30.00
Three subsequent cultivations the first year,	13.50
	<hr/> \$2083.00

Land can be purchased for seventy-five dollars per acre, but the above estimate is made upon present prices of improved land within three miles of Pasadena.

Second year.—Annual ploughing in January,	\$ 25.00
Four irrigations during year,	40.00
Six cultivations during year,	27.00
Third year,	125.00
Fourth year,	150.00
Fifth year,	200.00
Interest on investment,	1500.00

Total, \$4,150.00

Assuming that the trees are budded they will produce on the fourth year seventy-five oranges each, or the one thousand trees, seventy-five thousand oranges, which at ten dollars per thousand net would realize seven hundred fifty dollars. On the fifth year each tree may be expected to bear two hundred fifty oranges, which at the above rates would give twenty-five hundred dollars, and from this time there is a rapid increase until perhaps at the tenth year each tree may produce one thousand oranges. Such an outlook is very enticing; yet it must be remembered that this result is not always gained. The black or white scale may step in to interfere with the figures, or a dry year may blight the prospects; still this section has less of these disagreeable features, and more agreeable ones than any that I know of.

Water is king in California, and upon it depends the crops of all kinds. There is a common saying here that if you buy water the land is thrown in. The water is found in springs and streams in the Sierra Madre Mountains, is claimed, and led down in iron or stone pipes, and divided up on the various ranches, so that a supply may be had during the interval from April to October, or the dry season. Between October and the former month it is supposed to rain, this period being called the rainy season. As an example of the latter I may mention this winter, during which, from November to March, it has rained five times, one rain lasting nine days, off and on; the others from one to four. Thirty-two days elapsed between the last two rains, each day being, with few exceptions, a perfect summer one, with an average from 70° to 85° in the shade. Yet these rains were sufficient to make the country bloom like a garden and insure good crops. During the dry season when no rain is expected, the farmer depends upon irrigation, and the water is obtained in various ways depending upon the locality.

All the different varieties of oranges in the world are found in the orange belt of Southern California, and at the recent exposition at New Orleans the Riverside orange took the prize over those of Florida or the Gulf States. Perhaps the choicest is the Washington navel, a large fruit without a seed, juicy, and rich in flavor.

On nearly all the ranches a certain portion is given up to the grape, which in importance may be said to stand next to the orange. During the vintage I rode through a vineyard where the low vines spread away for several miles, loaded with the fragrant mission fruit, some bunches of which weighed five or six pounds. These were from the same vines that the Mission Fathers originally brought from Spain and the East. California has always been a grape country, but the real importance of this feature is just beginning to be realized. Raisins and wines are the chief products. In 1884 over fifty-three million pounds of raisins were imported into the United States, and it requires but a very slight gift of prophecy to say that in ten years California will be supplying this great demand. The chief raisin district in Spain is Malaga, a small area of about four thousand seven hundred twenty-nine square miles. A comparison of the products of the two countries shows that Southern California is much better adapted for the culture. The vineyards of the latter section yield from eight to ten tons of grapes per acre, while in Malaga two and a half tons is the greatest amount, or four pounds to the vine, equaling one and one fourth pounds of raisins to the vine.

As the vintage season approaches, notices from the owners of vineyards appear in the local papers, announcing what they propose to do. The temperance advocates will not sell to the wine men, while others prefer to thus dispose of their fruit; but the highest offer generally rules, where it is not a question of principle, and the grapes are sold on the vines; experts, as a rule, being able to guess with remarkable accuracy as to the number of tons to the acre. Once sold the grapes are picked in a systematic manner by crews or gangs of pickers, acting under a captain or foreman. The fruit is placed on wooden trays in carts and carried to the scales, weighed, then taken to the drying grounds. In large vineyards these grounds sometimes cover sixty acres of the ranch, and are as smooth as a brick-yard. Here the fruit is spread out in rows for two weeks or so. If rain comes at this time, the fruit is protected by rolls of oiled paper. Two car loads of the latter and fifty barrels of oil have been used or ordered in a single season for this purpose alone. When the grapes are thoroughly dried they are removed to sweat boxes that hold seventy-five or eighty pounds of fruit. These are placed in piles in the packing room, and allowed to remain for ten days, during which time they pass through a sweating process that is supposed to equalize the moisture in the raisins. From here the raisins go to the packer, who places four layers in each box, each layer being weighed and averaging five pounds or twenty pounds to the box. From the packer the box goes to the expert weigher, and if it passes his scrutiny, it is then taken to another room where it is nailed up and made ready for shipment. In large vineyards one hundred thirty or more men are employed in the packing department, turning out fifteen hundred boxes a day, or three car loads every two days. At the present time Chinamen are mainly employed, but the threatened boycott will undoubtedly in time see their places filled with white labor.

The money value of a raisin ranch may be estimated from the statement of one of the leading producers, who makes each acre yield two hundred forty boxes of raisins, which at two dollars a box, not the best price obtained, gives four

hundred eighty dollars as the earnings of one acre for one year.

The wine interest takes by far the largest proportion of the vineyard crops, from which in California alone, and principally in Los Angeles County, at least twenty-five million gallons of wine are made yearly, and this is increasing every season. On Baldwin's ranch, at Santa Anita near Pasadena, a typical winery on the most extensive scale can be seen. Here two hundred thousand gallons of wine are made in some years, and fifty thousand or more gallons of brandy. The grapes ripen in August, and the vineyards then present an attractive appearance, thronged with Mexican and Indian pickers. As fast as the luscious fruit is gathered it is placed in vats of a capacity of one thousand gallons, in which great wire wheels grind out the juice and future wine that is conducted away in shoots into numerous other vats. Finally the wine is stored in the gloomy cellars, and in huge butts of twenty-one hundred gallons capacity awaits the purchaser.

The fact that in a single year the United States imports three hundred fifty thousand gallons of olive oil, has resulted in the olive orchard, previously referred to, that when fully grown will be the largest in the world. It lies on the foot hills three miles from Pasadena. On the three hundred fifty thousand gallons of oil imported, a duty of two hundred fifty thousand dollars is paid that Southern California proposes to save for her producers.

At Cooper's ranch, near the cañon of that name, one of the finest olive orchards in Southern California can be seen; and that the olive culture is to be ranked among the most favorite pursuits of the future, is very evident upon even a casual examination. Mr. Cooper planted his first orchard in February, 1872. Four years later he gathered from some trees two gallons of berries. In six years his best trees yielded him thirty gallons of olives each, and the difference between this and olive culture in Italy is very marked. The old Tuscan proverb is, "plant a vineyard for yourself, and an olive orchard for your grand-children." The olive seed requires two years to germinate in Italy, in five years it resembles a miniature tree, and does not begin to pay until it is forty or fifty years old. These trees are the best, being long-lived and hardy. One in Nice is said to be one thousand years old, and to have yielded five hundred pounds of oil in a year.

By the budding process the California olive pays in six years. In 1880 Mr. Cooper's trees, then eight years old, were producing forty gallons, and, of course, have been increasing in value ever since. According to this gentleman, an orchard producing as above would give the following results: One hundred trees to the acre, at forty gallons each, four thousand gallons. One gallon equals five bottles which the producer sells for—say one dollar each, which gives the profit on one acre twenty thousand dollars. This is, of course, unprecedented, as poor years, the scale, and various agencies join in preventing such a crop; yet it is a possibility. The ordinary producer would be satisfied with a fourth or fifth of this, or even twenty-two hundred dollars an acre that one orchard was paying ten or twelve years ago, according to the State Horticultural Society reports. During the season of 1884 Mr. Cooper produced fourteen thousand bottles of oil that he sold to the retailer at one dollar per bottle; thus realizing fourteen thousand dollars from olives.

A visit to an olive ranch well repays in the novelty of the work observed. The olives are picked by Chinamen, Indians, and Mexicans, then packed in drying trays with slats, and piled in layers over a fire. After this they are ground

by huge stone wheels or rollers, the oil thus pressed out running off into large tanks. Here it is left to settle for a greater or less time, and faucets at different levels allow oil of different specific gravity as well as quality to be drawn off. Finally it is filtered through thick layers of cotton batting, and through a layer of French paper, after which it is ready for bottling.

The oil made in Southern California is pure—a fact shown by simple experiment. If it has a rich golden-yellow tint, and thickens and turns white in the cold, it is sure evidence that cotton seed has been introduced; but if its tint is a delicate straw with the suggestion of green, and is unaffected by climatic change, it is pure. Much, if not all, of the imported olive oil is adulterated, and, curiously enough, we ship the impurities to the Italian olive men who introduce them into their oil, and send it back to us, three hundred forty-eight thousand four hundred thirty-one gallons in 1877, upon which we paid a duty of two hundred thirty-two thousand seven hundred seven-six dollars. Mr. Cooper states that when he was in the shipping business, his firm received an order for one thousand tierces of hogs lard to be used in adulterating olive oil in Italy. Regarding the capital necessary to open up an olive orchard, Mr. Cooper states that his machinery costs about as follows:—

Drier, \$150; mill, \$250; two presses, \$500, (oleomargarine press will do); two tanks, \$200; filters, \$50; tin boiler, \$50; wooden building, \$400; total, \$1,600. Add to this ten acres at \$125 per acre, and we have \$2,850 as actual necessary capital. If the olive can be successfully grown in Southern California, it is evident that the fig, that suggests the same mother country, will be equally favored; and on many ranches these trees are found, the planters making experiments with the intention of investing after the requirements of the tree are ascertained. It is said we import sixty million pounds of prunes a statement that is attracting the attention of horticulturists in this section. At San José a farmer who owns a prune orchard expresses the opinion that he can raise and dry prunes at five cents per pound, realizing a net profit of \$100 per acre. At that price, if the supply were great, Southern California could soon reduce the importation.

California pears have long been before the public, and as the demand increases so the new orchards appear. How this industry pays is well shown in the experience of Mr. A. F. Kercheval, of Los Angeles. He bought one hundred fifty trees in 1877. Four years later he sold \$35 worth of fruit; in 1882 \$100, in '83 \$240, in '84 \$300, and the next year \$445. He lost some trees through gophers, so did not have a fair yield, but the land occupied was only one and one half

acres, and it has paid him on an average for the last four years \$271. So twenty acres of pear trees would alone give a farmer a good income.

Figures, however, are illusive and deceptive, and while throughout this article I have given statements of what has been done, it does not follow that every one will have the same good fortune. But that success attends the majority of fruit growers in Southern California is attested by the increasing demand and supply. The bearing trees and vines of a single county (Los Angeles) tell a wonderful story of growth. The following table is from the last assessor's statement, 1883. The increase to date is estimated at 20 per cent, giving the county 692,000 bearing citrus trees, and 254,000 deciduous trees, or as follows with 20 per cent added:—

Orange,	526,640
Lemon	50,565
Apple,	75,413
Peach,	45,955
English Walnut,	40,380
Pear,	25,218
Plum,	13,076
Olive,	4,308
Fig,	4,382
Quince,	3,517
Grape-vines, acres,	20,000

Aside from the wonderful producing power of the soil in this country, there is a charm in the actual labor. There is everything to make the work pleasant. The planting is from December to March when the heat is never intense, the thermometer generally standing at 75° or 80° in the shade, the farmer of the San Gabriel Valley working in what he considers a veritable paradise.

The curious conditions of this country are well shown as I write these concluding lines. A snow storm has just been raging in the mountains, and the whole range of the Sierra Madres gleams with a silvery coating dazzling to the eye resting on the greenest of mountain chaparral. The snow is blowing in flurries not a mile and a half away, as the crow flies; yet in our mountain home, just below, golden oranges gleam through their dark green leaves, the strawberries are luscious and red, and down below in the valley where the sun is breaking through the clouds, miles of vivid greens, acres of wild flowers in rich yellow, purple, and a variety of tints are seen. All this with the songs of myriads of birds forms a contrast so marked that the eye never tires watching the sight, and the strange transformations that are being marshaled upon this stage of nature. Such are some of the possibilities of Southern California and the San Gabriel Valley.

OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READINGS FOR JUNE.

First Week (ending June 8.)

1. "In His Name," from page 1 to page 19.
2. "How to Live." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
3. "Physical Geography." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Sunday Reading for June 6. THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Second Week (ending June 15.)

1. "In His Name," from page 19 to page 47.
2. "International Law." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
3. "The Age We Live In." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Sunday Reading for June 13. THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Third Week (ending June 22.)

1. "In His Name," from page 47 to page 65.
2. "Mathematics." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
3. "Parliamentary Practice." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Sunday Reading for June 20. THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Fourth Week (ending June 30.)

1. "In His Name," from page 65 to page 87.
2. "Wars and Rumors of Wars." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
3. "Moral Philosophy." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Sunday Reading for June 27. THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK IN JUNE.

1. Roll Call—Quotations concerning June.

2. Essay—The City of Lyons ; its Description, its History, its Industries. (Use Map and point out the hill of Fourvières and other places mentioned in "In His Name.")
 3. Recitation—"Hymn of the Waldenses." By Bryant.
 4. Paper—The Waldenses. (See Moreland's "History of the Evangelical Churches in the Valleys of Piedmont;" Maitland's "Tracts and Documents Illustrative of the Doctrines and Rites of the Ancient Albigenses and Waldenses;" Todd's "Book of the Vaudois;" Schaff's "Creeds of Christendom;" Baird's "The Waldenses, Albigenses, and Vaudois;" and the Cyclopedias.)
- Music.
5. Book Review—"Sartor Resartus." By Carlyle.
 6. Selection—"Lines to June."—By Leigh Hunt.
 7. Paper—A brief Account of the Great Arctic Expeditions.
 8. Selection—"Lady Franklin." By Whittier.

SECOND WEEK IN JUNE.

1. Roll-Call—Some Scientific Observations made during the Week.
 2. Table-Talk—The Crusades. (See Hallam's "Views of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages;" Mill's "History of the Crusades;" G. P. R. James' "Chivalry and the Crusades;" Procter's "History of the Crusades;" Thalheimer's "Mediaeval and Modern History;" Exeter Hall Lectures, vol. 1846-7; Gray's "Children's Crusade;" Cox's "Crusades;" and Michaud's "History of the Crusades.")
 3. Character Sketch—Pierre Waldo.
 4. Selections—"The Vaudois Valleys," and "The Crusader's Return." By Mrs. Hemans.
- Music.
5. Paper—Reforms Instituted in the United States during the Age We Live in.
 6. Essay—South America of To-Day.
 7. Pen Sketches of Noted Irish Reformers.
 8. The Questions on Political Economy in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

THIRD WEEK IN JUNE.

1. Roll-Call—A Bouquet of Flowers from the Poets—Quotations about Flowers.
2. Essay—The History of Palestine. (See Kitto's "Palestine;" Stanley's "Sinai and Palestine;" Prime's "Tent-Life in the Holy Land," and Thompson's "The Land and the Book.")
3. Recitations—"The Last Crusader," and "The Lay of the Minstrel's Heart" By Lord Lytton.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."—"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."—"Never Be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

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| 1. OPENING DAY—October 1. | 11. SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday. |
| 2. BRYANT DAY—November 3. | 12. SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday. |
| 3. SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday. | 13. INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua. |
| 4. MILTON DAY—December 9. | 14. ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua. |
| 5. COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday. | 15. COMMENCEMENT DAY—August, third Tuesday. |
| 6. SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday. | 16. GARFIELD DAY—September 19. |
| 7. FOUNDER'S DAY—February 23. | |
| 8. LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27. | |
| 9. SHAKSPERE DAY—April 23. | |
| 10. ADDISON DAY—May 1. | |

If each Local Circle known to THE CHAUTAUQUAN will spend five minutes at its next meeting in digesting and assimilating the following lesson in tact and common sense,

the Scribe will promise a fifty per cent advance in C. L. S. C. recruits for next year.

"I once remonstrated with a young friend for reading trashy

FOURTH WEEK IN JUNE.

1. Roll-Call—Farewell Quotations.
 2. Pen Sketches of some of the Leaders of the Crusades.
 3. Essay—The Life of L. E. L. (Miss Letitia E. Landon) and a Criticism on her Poem, "The Troubadour."
 4. Paper—Medicine as Practiced in the Middle Ages, with an account of Averroes and Abulcasis.
- Music.
5. Short Accounts of Great Philosophers.
 6. A Story—Selected from a well-known author and told by some one who shall suppress all leading names—Circle to guess name of story and its author.
 7. Table-Talk—Wars and Rumors of Wars.
 8. Questions on "In His Name," in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

A FAREWELL MEETING.

Some fitting closing entertainment for the year should be held by each circle. Perhaps no more pleasant way could be found than to take an excursion to some point of interest. One circle of which we have heard intends to hold a "house-warming" in a large public building going up in its city, whose owner has courteously invited the circle to honor it with festivities of this kind. A picnic furnishes a good farewell exercise, so does a banquet or a monthly parlor meeting. "All's well that ends well" is a saying especially true of local circles, for the memory of a delightful good-by meeting lends vigor and zeal to the opening exercise of the ensuing year; and this in its turn brings out in a marked manner the truth of that other old adage "Well begun is half done." So under the influence of the action and reaction of an enjoyable close and a spirited opening, the work of the year must abound in good results.

novels. 'But', said she, 'I cannot endure history it is so dry.' Not to make the transit too sudden I produced 'Ivanhoe,' by Sir Walter Scott, which she read with interest. This awakened a desire to know something of English history; then I recommended Macaulay's 'History of England' interspersed with 'David Copperfield' by Dickens. At Christmas I gave her 'Character' by Smiles, and now you could not induce her to read trash. She has no taste for it. She has cultivated a taste for a better and higher class of books; and is already the possessor of quite a nice little library of her own earning. For, dear reader, this excellent young person is cook in my family; and since she first stopped reading trash and adopted good substantial reading matter instead, there has been a marked improvement in both her cooking and the appearance of our kitchen. Her manners are more gentle and refined, and she is decidedly more intelligent and sensible. She has learned the secret of How to Win."

YOUNG FOLKS.

STONEWALL, MANITOBA, heads the list, a circle with two members.

The Miltonians of St. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND, are making the most of roll-call quotations. They keep to their namesake and use Milton each week. It is by far the most satisfactory plan we know. One author well studied is worth a legion dipped into.

Corinne Circle of SHEDICA, NEW BRUNSWICK, first appeared on the scene in October last. It is one of the "rain-or-shine" kind.

"We follow the rule of getting every one at work and keeping him at it" is the OWEN SOUND, ONTARIO, secret of success. The plan of this circle with Browning's poems is admirable. Each poem is assigned to a member who is supposed to reproduce the substance in plain, simple, but good prose. All difficult passages are worked out at length. After the paraphrase is read questions are in order.—A Circle of six has appeared at DEMORESTVILLE.—Another late Ontario production is the Triangle of NORTHPORT.—In January twelve brave hearts of WOODSTOCK raised Virgil's motto, *Possunt, quia posse videntur* and formed the Victoria Circle. The device of the president for conquering the difficulties in the typography of ancient Rome is decidedly novel. A tea tray covered with moist salt was the apparatus; in this she laid out streets and river, and built hills, arches, and ruins.—The St. Vincent of TORONTO, seventeen members, showed its quality, by beginning the year's work in March, determined to "catch up."—The '89 circle at BLOOMFIELD has taken a name and a motto; Granite, the one, "Knowledge is power," the other.—There are thirty-six names enrolled in a new organization at PARKDALE.

MAINE continues to send in returns. The latest one The Gleaners of TROY, eight in number and of informal habits; the Clio, its twelve members gathered from the vicinity of NORTH AUBURN; a circle of twelve members at SOUTH BERWICK; and eighteen readers coming from WEST BOWDOIN and LISBON, in the W. B. and L.—The Munjoy of PORTLAND has fifty members. A large delegation is going to the Maine Assembly at FRYEBURG this season.—The Pine Tree Circle of ROCKLAND has gotten wisdom in its first year. "Each member is assigned one number and takes it cheerfully. It is one of our laws to accept every thing given, without a murmur."—The WILTON Chautauquans suspended regular meetings in January and February on account of interesting religious meetings in the town. The work has been resumed, however, and by an extra effort the lost ground recovered.—Twenty-one names for the Hurlbut of PORTLAND.

January yielded a rich circle-harvest. In NEW HAMPSHIRE, two dating from that time report, the White Mount-

ain of RANDOLPH, eight members, and the Laurel of CHESTER with nineteen enrolled.

VERMONT presents nine Treasure-Seekers at GLOVER, sixteen Gleaners at DERBY CENTER, and three new readers at RUTLAND.—The Mistletoe of LUDLOW was mentioned in February. Its membership is twelve, its meetings satisfactory.

Several of the MASSACHUSETTS circles reported as formed this year send us further items of their growth. The Mutual Improvement Society of LOWELL gives its number as twenty-five; its programs are very pleasing.—The Bryant of WEST SCITUATE makes each alternate weekly sitting open to its friends. Some thirty go regularly and help in the evening's exercises. A Memorial Day for each month has been added to the Bryant's calendar.—The WILLIAMSBURG Circle, with a roll of twenty-three, averages an attendance of twelve. Here is an opportunity for a study of the question, "Having names, how shall we turn them into working members?" If the WILLIAMSBURG friends find out, there are many who will be glad to be taught the method.—The WELFLEET Circle bears a banner inscribed with *Labor omnia vincit*. The circle has the good fortune to be under the leadership of a well-known Chautauqua lecturer, Rev. C. M. Westlake. He and his wife have literally carried Chautauqua to WELFLEET.—The Umphacina of SOUTHFIELD declares that it is increasing in numbers, and the interest does not flag. A unique response to roll-call, which this circle has tried, consists of incidents in the local history of the town.—The Conglomerate of ROXBURY rises to explain. Its name is "in compliment to the ROXBURY pudding stone, and certain other appropriate circumstances." The Conglomerate is putting some good points into its programs. We notice a continued paper on the history of papacy, prizes for correct answers to the "Questions, (a valentine was a timely February reward), and a constant attention to discussion.—St. Paul's Circle at LOWELL has twenty-five members, with an average attendance of sixteen. How can the attendance and the roll be made to balance?—The Wonomo of NANTUCKET is sending us excellent programs.—Thirty-two members are in the circle at ADAMS.—The CAMBRIDGEPORT Circle has ninety members. The stereopticon is an indispensable element in its work.—The Pawtucket of LOWELL continues to do famously.—The 'others ready to add their names' to the Blue Hill of RANDOLPH turn out to be a legion. Over forty persons have joined since our report in November. A "bright, energetic president" is one key to this increase.—The Y. M. C. A. Circle at SPRINGFIELD is prospering.—It is a pleasure to welcome the circle formed in the MASSACHUSETTS reformatory at WARNERVILLE. There are nineteen members from the institution who have had the manliness and courage to make the most of their unpleasant situations. The circle reports its Chautauqua course of material assistance. Let us hear from you again.—Other circles for the first time introduced into our company are, the Rainbow of WEST ACTON, seven members; the Holmes of PITTSFIELD, thirty-one enrolled; a club of seven at Athol; the Carlisle at SOUTH BYFIELD; the Holmes and Whittier circles of HAVERHILL; the Taghconie of St. BARRINGTON; and the Hiawatha of CHESTER.

The selection of a name for a circle is a nice enough task to deserve careful attention. We like particularly well the custom of selecting a name of local historical importance as the young circle at NEW LONDON, CONNECTICUT, has done. *Pequot* is their choice, from the Indian tribe which dwelt along the shores of that country when the white men first took possession.—The thirty-eight Mosaics of NEW

HAVEN report themselves as "wide-awake and enthusiastic."

A little confidence from one of the Crescents of BIRMINGHAM proves the metal of that pleasant company, "There is but one member of our circle who does not earn her own living, and she does part of the time. Nevertheless, we all find time for the reading, and are very thankful that we took it up. We did not begin until the first of November, but by Christmas nearly every member had caught up and was ready to begin the January readings."—The circle of Pond-Lilies at WOODBRIDGE has been cultivated with the following effectual instruments: "meetings, informal but orderly; variety enough to keep up the interest; each member to take an *active* part in the exercises at least once a month; utilize the strong points and develop the weak ones of the members."

NEW YORK and BROOKLYN are making a strong record in matters Chautauquan this year. In the former city two new circles have just been started, one under the direction of Rev. W. F. Crafts, the other called the Chelsea. The Arden gave a fine Longfellow entertainment in February. The Garfield now in its second year and numbering forty-seven has kept up a regular flow of excellent programs through the entire year. The Unique is still at work, it has come over from '83. The Phillips is immensely prosperous this first year of its life. In January the circle held a brilliant parlor entertainment at which Prof. Dundon of the New York Normal College, and Mr. Charles Barnard both delivered addresses. About one hundred seventy-five friends were present, and, after the literary exercises, were served with refreshments.—From BROOKLYN the Hale and South Brooklyn circles are the latest. There are twelve members in the former, eight in the latter. The Monroe now two years old has twenty members, the Warren in its fourth year, twelve. Several of the BROOKLYN circles united in securing a lecture on Rome for an evening in March. The stereopticon was used to illustrate the remarks. The committee divided the proceeds between the lecturer and the Chautauqua Chime.—Among the "newly organized" of the state, are circles at SHERWOOD, ANDES (thirty-four members), AU SABLE FORKS (Fern Lake of eighteen members), CHAUTEAUGAY, FAIRPORT, FLATBUSH, BINGHAMPTON, (fifteen enrolled), DANSVILLE, ROUND LAKE, (eighteen members in Wiseman Circle), SAND LAKE, (twenty-one members), WEST LEBANON, NEW BERLIN.—Two of the thirteen members at the newly formed Cayuga circle of SHERWOOD have recently returned from Europe and are delighting their colleagues by their graphic descriptions and many pictures.—The Browning of MIDDLEBURG, young and prosperous, promises more members for another year.—At NIAGARA FALLS, the local paper thus characterizes the new circle:—

This enterprising organization of eleven members, known as the "Hyperion," manifests much interest in its work; and the class meetings, which occur each week, are regarded by all as both pleasant and profitable."

—Mr. LEBANON'S Egeria is warmly appreciative of the Chautauqua work, after a trial of nearly a year. They get good from it because they work. One hard but fruitful task on their program is to rewrite articles from THE CHAUTAUQUAN, in order to fix facts and improve composition.—The Owahagena of CAZENOVIA has a pleasant plan for a monthly meeting. The circle meets in the afternoon, takes tea together, and closes with a social.—Eighteen members make the Square Circle of NAPOLI.—Many of the new circles whose organization has already been noted in these columns, write us of their growth and their hopes. At PATCHOGUE the circle has grown to twenty-eight members.

Their programs are suggestive; the Reporter's Items find a place, the history of Patchogue has been studied, a Budget for news and questions and all sorts, we suppose, closes each evening.—BAYSHORE has fourteen members.—The Four-Leaf Clover of ALBANY is so far true to its name. Why not add an *s* to the *clover* next year?—WHITEHALL Circle reports its last meeting as its best. Good signs!—There are thirteen Brownings in the circle of BRUNSWICK, or CROPSVILLE.—The First Ward Mosaics of ROCHESTER write: "The programs have been varied and full of interest. The members allow nothing but sickness or absence from the city to detain them, and at this time the interest seems greater than ever before. We are forming a permanent book-club."—In LOCKPORT there has been formed a general Local Circle of about sixty members. The Unique has been in operation in Lockport for four years and a circle of '89ers was formed there last fall, both are segments of the general Circle. This organization is fortunate in having a very scholarly and widely-traveled leader, Rev. Dr. Cushing.

Allow us to introduce from NEW JERSEY, the Imperial of DIAS CREEK, young, strong, and progressive, a representative from SOUTH ORANGE, a circle of eleven ambitious young folks from CLAYTON, and the Ridgeview Triangle of MADISON.—At WENONAH the circle has been studying architecture.

The PENNSYLVANIA roll of recruits runs: PITTSBURGH, West Bellevue, eight members; EASTON, Excelsior, fifteen members; SERVICE, fifteen; PHILADELPHIA, Mt. Vernon, nine members.—The Mizpah and the Vincent of PHILADELPHIA have been interchanging visits.—The twenty-five members of the Limestone of FROGTOWN, introduce each evening's exercises by a "good social time" and close with a general and informal chat.—The KINGSTON Circle continues active.—The Bryant of CHAMBERSBURG reports, "flourishing condition," "meetings interesting and instructive."—The new organization at PHILADELPHIA mentioned in our April issue has taken the good name of Endeavor.—PITTSBURGH is at the front as usual. The East End Branch reports prosperity and marvels at the interest of the community in the C. L. S. C.—At ALLENTOWN, the thirty-three members have chosen the name Pol-luck.

WASHINGTON, D. C., does not often let a month pass without something new to report. This time it is the Concordia, a circle of ten members.

A friend writes from HAGERSTOWN, MARYLAND: "The Antietam Circle has become so interested that it now holds weekly meetings. In addition to our readings we discuss the leading questions of the day, the labor problem, the doings of Congress, of the State Legislature, and the like. Our president is a traveled man and his talks are very interesting. An amateur artist in our company has caused us to give particular attention to the Art Readings."

That "informal company" of SPARTANSBURG, SOUTH CAROLINA, has not only organized, but taken a name, the Spartan Band.

OHIO presents for the first time this brave array of followers: HOPEWELL (seventeen members), CENTREVILLE (five enrolled), MARIETTA ("we have made a good beginning, are fully alive to the benefit of the work, have lost no members, and another year shall probably increase"), COLUMBUS (the Franklin Circle of eighteen members), CLARIDON (the Holly), Mr. CARMEL (the Philomath), LEBANON (Miami of forty members), PIQUA (eight members), AVON LAKE (nine members).—The new club at IRONTON has grown to twenty-two.—The HOCKINGPORT Chautauqua Club is enthusiastic

in its reports of the value of the work.—The Ulysses of YOUNGSTOWN has made its night one of the pleasantest of the week. There are thirty-four enrolled at present in this circle.—BATAVIA's circle is twenty strong and a prospect of new recruits.—We doubt if there are many clubs in which one set of books is made to do work for eight readers. The Albany of LEE is successfully doing this. The books for the year have been placed in the public library. The circle is conducted strictly according to the method laid out for reading. A duplicate set of books will probably be placed in the library another year to provide for an expected increase of the circle. Lee, for a village of less than five hundred inhabitants, has a remarkable library; it contains about sixteen hundred volumes of well-selected works.—NORWALK's East End has reached thirty-six.—“Every member is a worker,” so says the secretary of Miami of FRANKLIN.—“Twenty-one energetic members,” “excellent work,” describes the Buckeye of CHESHIRE.—The Onawa of WILLIAMSBURG has divided itself into three sections. The instruction committee consists of three members each of whom takes charge of a division and attends to the entertainment. The circle possesses a fine stereopticon and is furnishing itself with views; the intention is to give monthly public entertainments with these views explained by the president.

The GOODRICH Circle of eighteen heads the list of the “new” in MICHIGAN.—The Lunar of ORION follows with ten.—“Friendly weekly meetings” have the ten young Gleaners at ALBION.—“Chautauqua has opened a new world for us,” so testify the fourteen members of the Valley City of GRAND RAPIDS.—At MONTAGUE there are nine names enrolled. This circle has recently enjoyed a lecture from Rev. H. J. L. Mathews, our former consul to Italy.

SPENCER, INDIANA, reports its first Chautauqua offspring. It does not take long for these young folks to give themselves grown-up airs. Here is the BELVIDERE, ILLINOIS, Circle out with the politest of printed programs, filled with the brightest of bright ideas.—AUGUSTA is doing nobly.—The RIVER FOREST Circle at present numbers thirty-five members. The work is progressing finely.—The Clover Leaf of CHICAGO, has fourteen members. Its progress has been very satisfactory.—The Maecenas, ELGIN, writes: “Instead of the interest diminishing as had been predicted it has been increasing and we now have twenty-nine members.

And this announcement from RICHMOND, KENTUCKY:—“I am happy to state that the persons in Richmond belonging to the C. L. S. C., are banded into one great and glorious circle, with heads erect and banners floating. We are at present in the throes of naming it. As soon as this is done, it will be announced.”

The White Rose of LOUISA has sixteen petals, all determined to cultivate their “literary side.” “May it neither “blush unseen” nor “waste its sweetness on the desert air.”—The academic shades of Locust Grove Academy, Mt. STERLING, shelter still another circle-attempt. We shall expect to hear soon how it thrives.

The Cornelian is a FOND DU LAC, WISCONSIN, band of thirty-four ready workers. Their willingness to take hold of whatever is assigned is one of their strongest features. The Cornelian united with the Berea in a Longfellow celebration this year.—“No member ever thinks of refusing to do what is asked of him” is the announcement from the First RACINE Circle. It would be profitable for leaders of circles whose members never think of not refusing to do what is asked of them, to know how Racine manages this “con-

summation devoutly to be wished.”—The Bryant Circle of OMRO keeps up good interest. Most of the members are in earnest, and the program is usually all carried out.—The Vera Vita Circle of LAKE GENEVA now numbers twenty-seven members. A thorough review and discussion of the readings of the week is the chief feature in their work, but a portion of the time is given to the latest news in science, politics, music, art, and religion.

The Bicknell is a new representative from ST. CHARLES, MINNESOTA.—We have our opinion of a Minnesota winter, and a corresponding appreciation of the members of a circle that its villainy fails to keep in-doors, such are the enthusiastic seventeen in the Bee-Hive of ROCHESTER.

The Triumvirate of SMITHLAND and a club of Spare-Minute readers at REINBECK are the latest from IOWA.—That Chautauqua family at WEST LIBERTY, which joined us last month, is to be known as the Occidental.—The Excelsior of BLUE GRASS is doing nobly.

One organization in MISSOURI has not struck. It is the C. L. S. C. The Crescent of LAMAR and NEOSHO Circle are on our table assuring us of their steadfastness.

KANSAS' faculty for growing is quite as evident in its circles as its corn and cyclones. At WYANDOTTE it has carried the Pansy and Mark Twain up to the library point, and that is a very high notch for a circle to reach. Longfellow Day was made practical as well as delightful by devoting the proceeds of the entertainment to the nucleus of a reference library.—“Out in the far western part of Kansas in the town of OAKLEY,” writes a friend, “We have organized the Friendly Fireside Circle. There is no doubt but it will succeed.”—The Excelsior of SENECA makes its first appearance.—If it be true that “blood tells” then we must expect great things from PARSONS, for it will be remembered how strong is its alumni. The fact is that the “great things” are here. The Grecians are the last descendants, and under their auspices Milton Day saw a grand reunion of all in the city connected with Chautauqua. Bryant Day was observed in the same way, and in January a lecture from Geo. W. Bain netted the club fifty-five dollars—for books, we hope.

From the C. L. S. C. frontier, TEMPLE, TEXAS, comes this welcome word: “We have organized a local circle here consisting of fourteen members.”

The C. L. S. C. boom begun in SEATTLE, WASHINGTON TERRITORY, is fast winning the country. This month six readers at PADILLA report an organization, and a company of ladies at WHATCOM writes: “On the last day of the old year we planned to continue in company our readings begun in different places and at different times. Being the nearest circle to Mt. Baker we think we are entitled to its name. We take it as our symbol, suggesting to us, strength, dignity, purity.”

The circle formed this year in the NAPA State Asylum, CALIFORNIA, is doing much good work. “The meeting evening is always looked forward to with pleasure,” writes the secretary, “the best proof we can give of how interested we are.” The Napa friends make it a rule to keep a work by some standard author on hand from which they read each evening.—The advance in California is represented by circles at DOWNEY, FRESNO CITY (Philomathic, sixteen members), and MODESTA.

MEMORIAL DAYS.

“Let the good and the great be honored, even in the grave.”

Should the Scribe attempt to tell all that the letter-bags contain of Memorial Day observances, THE CHAUTAUQUAN would not be large enough to contain the news. A few of the suggestions, however, must not be passed by. One is

the combined invitation and program from the NAPANEE, CANADA, Circle. A heavy calendared card, large size, bears on one side this formula:

LONGFELLOW MEMORIAL DAY

C. L. S. C.

The Napanee Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, classes of 1888-9, requests the pleasure of the company of

At a conversazione to be held at the residence of _____ on Friday evening

February 26, at eight o'clock sharp.

The favor of an answer is requested.

[Signed]

On the opposite side is printed the program carried out by the Napanees before a company of seventy-five Chautauqua friends.—A similar card was sent out by the circles of Washington County, NORTHFIELD, VERMONT. At a teachers' institute these circles joined forces, occupying one evening of the week with a celebration of Longfellow Day. A card, nine by three and one half inches, had two and one quarter inches of each end folded in. The back bore the invitation:

"The circles of the county request the pleasure of your presence at their first Union Memorial Service, Northfield, Vt., February 26, 1886.

On the inside, the center bore the program, a capital one by the way; one end, the names of the six towns represented: MONTPELIER, EAST MONTPELIER, CABOT, WATERBURY, PLAINFIELD, and NORTHFIELD, and the other, the place of meeting.

These memorial celebrations uniformly attract attention from the local press. A large number of clippings on our table tell of entertainments in various parts of the country, almost always with the highest praise. A paper of AUBURN, MAINE, says the recent "evening with Longfellow" given by the class of '88 of the Vincent circle "was admirable."

—From a RUTLAND, VERMONT, paper the description of the Alpha's Longfellow memorial is taken. The Alpha gave a very elaborate entertainment to about fifty guests.—The *Weekly Times*, of JORDAN, NEW YORK, says that "through the courtesy of the C. L. S. C., an appreciative company of about eighty assembled for a Longfellow reception."—The *Ocean Grove Record*, NEW JERSEY, which weekly devotes a corner to C. L. S. C. interests, prints the exercises with which the circle of that community entertained its friends.—The poets memory was kept with music, elocution, and good talk by the Hurlbut Circle and its friends in PITTSBURG, PENNSYLVANIA, so says the *Pittsburg Dispatch*. Tasteful programs were distributed to the company which gathered.—At TROY, OHIO, the press is a firm friend of the Trojans. Among the recent notices is a full account of the circle's pleasing Bryant celebration in which the editor thus soliloquizes:

"But what hath four years wrought? The small handful of Chautauquans has more than quadrupled. Care is now taken to reserve the largest rooms at the disposal of the circle for these extra occasions; the programs are more general and pleasing in character, and the number of lookers-on to enjoy them, greater. May another four years mark no retrograde movement." So be it.

At FREMONT, OHIO, the full program of the recent celebration on Longfellow Day, by the Hayes Circle appears in the local paper. This Fremont Circle takes its name from Ex-President Hayes, whom, it will be remembered, lives here. There are about thirty members in the circle.—Decidedly the most literal rendering of the suggestion thrown out

by THE CHAUTAUQUAN in regard to "Tales of a Wayside Inn," which we have seen, is reported in the SOUTH BEND, INDIANA, *Daily Tribune*. The Society of the Hall in the Grove in response to the invitation of a friend gathered at an actual wayside inn at MISHAWAKA several miles distant. Around the fireside in the great parlour the members gathered and told their tales. The Falcon of Sir Federigo, Torquemada, Lady Wentworth, the Baron of St. Castine, etc. An elegant supper followed the story-telling, and the after-dinner hour was spent in quotations and songs. At train time the company broke up and returned from its romantic pilgrimage to SOUTH BEND.—How the Vincennes Circle of WESTFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS opened a "Wayside Inn," and how it succeeded is told in the following clippings:—

"There will be a Longfellow reception in the parlors of the M. E. Church, March 10. It will be given by the Vincennes Circle for the benefit of the Young People's society. The landlord of the Wayside Inn will open for the occasion his best room, appropriately garnished, and will be assisted by his fair daughter in receiving his guests, who will include various personages made famous by the poet's touch. The landlord cordially invites outsiders to be present and to be introduced to the guests, but wishes it distinctly understood that he will not, as heretofore, enter into a contest with the weather, and that, if the elements are not favorable, his reception will be postponed."

"The Longfellow reception was a very pretty and successful affair. The songs were sweet, the conversation bright and pleasant, and the twenty-six characters pretty or picturesque as the conditions demanded. The audience was larger than anybody had planned for, and larger than the rooms could well accommodate with positions for seeing and hearing. More than two hundred were present. The Chautauquans are flattered that they unexpectedly to themselves proved so attractive.—

This plan was, also, used at LITTLE FALLS, NEW YORK, from whence one of the seventy-five invited guests sends us word that "the evening was without a flaw."—The Ad Astra of BROOKLYN, NEW YORK found this plan so successful that it contemplated celebrating Shakspeare Day in the same way, and the secretary sends the exhortation, "I would urge other circles to try this plan; even without costumes it is profitable."—The Bowdon Circle of MASON CITY, ILLINOIS made an open meeting of its Longfellow celebration with entire success, judging from these notices from local papers. One says:—

"Those who attended that evening had a splendid chance to see what they had missed by not joining this live literary association."

Another:

"The Chautauqua Circle in this city is evidently doing an excellent work for itself, and that it will grow in numbers and influence is now a foregone conclusion."

The eight-year-old circle at INDIANOLA, IOWA, receives a public compliment for its Bryant session.—Of the Longfellow celebration of the Imperial Circle at RISING CITY, NEBRASKA, the local press says: "the entertainment was well received and the company departed satisfied with the Imperial."—The Longfellow of BOISE CITY, IDAHO, gave an entertainment on Longfellow Day that netted them over one hundred dollars. A column is given to the performance in an exchange. This is the closing of the article:—

"Altogether the entertainment was a success, and the audience went away impressed with the fact that the Chautauqua Circle was firmly established here, and fully competent to maintain its reputation as a Literary Circle, if we may judge from this, its first public entertainment."

The Founder's Day Celebration observed at LOS ANGELES CALIFORNIA, calls forth these words from a local paper:—

"The blessings of this institution are incalculable. Millions of minds have been stimulated into higher thought and research. The culture and learning of almost all protestant churches of this country have been brought into sweet fellowship. Who can estimate the amount of benefit to the cause of Christianity and Science?"

A host of experiences and hints are given in the Memorial Day programs received. The Milton Day program of the PORTLAND, MAINE, Circle suggests: "Members in possession of portraits of Milton, or other pictures appropriate for the occasion are requested to send them."—The MILTON, VERMONT, Circle has made a specialty of programs for Memorial Day until now it writes: "We are beginning to wonder what we can have next. Our other programs were so good that people expect a great deal now. We think these exercises have helped us in getting new members."

—At CASTELTON, VERMONT, the circle added to its program an "Art gallery of Longfellow and his home." For spice, quotations were read descriptive of each one present, and the circle was requested to guess for whom each was intended.—We like the plan adopted in several places of holding union meetings on Memorial Days. Thus at DORCHESTER, MASS., the Paul Revere Circle at the request of the Orphic celebrated Longfellow Day in joint session. This Paul Revere is a new circle of eight members. It reports large plans for another year. This plan of visiting has also been tried by the Pansy of DECATUR, MICHIGAN. On February 8, a Browning evening was held and the circle from LITTLE PRAIRIE RONDE came on a visit. The Pansies returned the compliment on Longfellow Day.—At ENGLISHVILLE of the same state, the circle has been exchanging visits with the LISBON and SPARTA Circles.—At JACKSON, MICHIGAN, the Carleton, Haven, and Young People's Circles held a joint Longfellow celebration.—The numerous programs which come from the Alpha of NORWICH, CONNECTICUT, are a fresh demonstration, if one is needed, of the force of a pat quotation. For instance the menu card of the annual supper bears the motto:

"A fig for your bill of fare, give me your bill of company."

The end of the same is marked:

"After dinner, rest a while;
After supper, walk a mile."

The program for a recent Dickens carnival gives as a sentiment for roll-call. "Be in time, Be in time", for Mrs. Jarley's Wax Works which appear as a prominent number: "If I had a donkey wot wouldn't go to see Mrs. Jarley's Wax-work show do you think I'd acknowledge him! Oh, no! no!"

One of the pleasantest features of the first anniversary of the Alpha Circle of the ORANGES, NEW JERSEY, was that of presenting their much esteemed President with a handsome set of the Imperial Dictionary, in recognition of his services in organizing and establishing the circle. The present membership of the circle is thirty-six.—At AKRON OHIO, Hiawatha was read and illustrated by tableaux. The following were the scenes selected:

Tableau—WIGWAM OF NOKOMIS. READING.

"By the shining Big Sea Water
Stood the wigwam of Nokomis."

Tableau—BABY HIAWATHA AND NOKOMIS. READING.

"There the wrinkled old Nokomis
Nursed the little Hiawatha."

Tableau—YOUTHFUL HIAWATHA. READING.

"Forth into the forest straightway
All alone walked Hiawatha
Proudly with his bow and arrows."

Tableau—HIAWATHA LEAVING TO WED LAUGHING WATER. READING.

"Go not eastward, go not westward,
For a stranger whom we know not."

Tableau—ARROW-MAKER AND MINNEHAHA. READING.

"At the doorway of his wigwam
Sat the ancient Arrow-Maker;

At his side, in all her beauty,
Sat the lovely Minnehaha."

READING.

Tableau—WELCOMING HIAWATHA.

"Hiawatha, you are welcome."

READING.

Tableau—HIAWATHA AND MINNEHAHA LEAVING THE ARROW-MAKER.

"Thus it is our daughters leave us;
Those we love, and those who love us."

READING.

Tableau—BEAUTIFUL MINNEHAHA.

"Handsome of all the women
In the land of the Dakotahs,
In the land of handsome women."

READING.

Tableau—NOKOMIS AND MINNEHAHA GOING TO THE CORN FIELD.

"And the merry Laughing Water
Went rejoicing from the wigwam,
With Nokomis, old and wrinkled,
To the harvest of the corn fields."

READING.

Tableau—(a) NOKOMIS AND MINNEHAHA WAITING FOR HIAWATHA.

"One dark evening, after sundown,
In her wigwam, Laughing Water
Sat with old Nokomis waiting
For the steps of Hiawatha."

(b) ENTER THE GHOSTS.

"Then the curtain of the doorway
From without was slowly lifted
And two women entered softly,
Passed the doorway uninvited."

READING.

Tableau—FAMINE AND FEVER.

"In the wigwam with Nokomis,
With the Famine and the Fever.
She was lying, the beloved,
She, the dying Minnehaha."

READING.

Tableau—DYING MINNEHAHA.

"I can feel his icy fingers.
Clasping mine amid the darkness,
Hiawatha, Hiawatha!"

READING.

Tableau—RETURN OF HIAWATHA.

"And he rushed into the wigwam,
Saw the old Nokomis slowly
Rocking to and fro and moaning."

READING.

Tableau—MOURNING HIAWATHA.

"With both hands his face he covered,
Seven long days and nights he sat there."

The Delphian Circle of KANKAKEE, ILLINOIS, gave illustrated readings from Elizabeth and Evangeline on Longfellow Day. — At BLUE EARTH CITY, MINNESOTA, a high tea followed by a literary program celebrated this favorite day.

From the circles at the following places we have received excellent programs which only the limitations of space forbid that we should notice: SHOWHEGAN, MAINE (forty-eight members); The Raymond Circle (eighteen members), NASHUA, NEW HAMPSHIRE; FRAMINGHAM, MASSACHUSETTS (fifteen members); SOUTH GARDNER (fourteen members); NEWBURYPORT, BELLEVILLE Circle (twenty-two members); SPRINGFIELD, WHITTIER (forty members); PLYMOUTH, PLYMOUTH ROCK Circle (forty-three members); ROCKLAND, HATHERLY Circle (thirty-seven members); NEWTON CENTRE, WABAN (thirty-one members); DANIELSONVILLE, CONNECTICUT, Progressives (sixteen members); ESSEX, Pettipauge Circle (twenty members); NORTHVILLE, NEW YORK, ROWE Circle (eight members); NEWARK, Arcadian Circle (twenty-four members); BRIDGEPORT, NEW JERSEY; RED BANK; ST. CLAIRSVILLE, OHIO, The Pilgrims (sixteen members); PERRYBURG and BOWLING GREEN Circles; DEFIANCE (thirty-three members); BIG RAPIDS, MICHIGAN, "Lovers of Longfellow" (ten members); HART, Hiawatha (thirty-two members); DETROIT; SCHOOLCRAFT, Mayflower Circle (twelve members); GREENSBURG, INDIANA, Chaffee Circle; INDIANAPOLIS, Delta Circle (seventeen members); MORRISONVILLE, ILLINOIS, Alpha Zeta (twenty-four members); ROCK, ARKANSAS, West Side C. L. S. C.; SPRINGFIELD, MISSOURI, Queen City Circle; DES MOINES, IOWA, Vincent Circle; THE DALLES, OREGON, Hyperian Circle (twenty-three members).

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

CLASS OF 1886.—"THE PROGRESSIVES."

"We study for light, to bless with light."

CLASS ORGANIZATION.

President—The Rev. B. P. Snow, Biddeford, Maine.

Vice-Presidents—The Rev. J. T. Whitley, Salisbury, Maryland; Mr. L. F. Houghton, Peoria, Illinois; Mr. Walter Y. Morgan, Cleveland, Ohio; Mrs. Della Browne, Louisville, Kentucky; Miss Florence Finch, Palestine, Texas.

Secretary—The Rev. W. L. Austin, New Albany, Ind.

Treasurer—W. T. Dunn, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Shall not '86 show a larger proportion of graduates to whole membership than any previous class? Let every one strive to bring up and complete the reading of the course in time to receive graduation honors, and so avoid falling back.

Write the President or General Secretary any suggestions you may desire to offer on Class observances of Chautauqua this graduation year.

Many of the "lone stars," who have been gaining richly in light, and giving to the dim world around them the light of their studious example, will come to Chautauqua for graduation. They may be sure of the warmest welcome from their classmates. Of the thousands of '86, none are more faithful Progressives than those reading alone.

Preparations are going forward finely for graduation at the Framingham Assembly. Members of the class in New England are urged to send in promptly their contributions toward the Commencement fund, in accordance with circular in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for March.

The Framingham Committee on Decoration requests classmates having Chinese lanterns, fans, or other decorative material, to bring all in for use at head-quarters. Also be sure to bring with you every class banner, motto, device, &c.

The prospect is that Recognition Day at Framingham this year will surpass in interest and attractiveness all past occasions. Members of the Class are coming in great numbers.

The Recognition Service for the Class of '86 of the C. L. S. C. at the Ocean Grove Assembly, is to be held July 25. Ample preparations will be made to give a hearty welcome at that time to all Chautauquans. The Recognition Service at this popular sea-side resort last year was full of enthusiasm, and was attended by a concourse of people second only to Chautauqua, "the mother of us all." All members of the Class of '86 who cannot be at Chautauqua and can be present at Ocean Grove will have their diplomas forwarded to that place in time for this service, if they so advise Miss K. F. Kimball, Plainfield, N. J., the Rev. E. H. Stokes, D. D. Ocean Grove, N. J., or the Rev. B. B. Loomis, Albany, N. Y.

Greensburg, Ind., has a handsome number of loyal Progressives, nearly every one of whom mean to be at Chautauqua to pass under the arches.

Troy, N. Y., the city that leads in all C. L. S. C. matters, will send a splendid delegation for graduation this year, and is likely to lead in this, as in other good things. Reports promising large attendance come from all points.

CLASS OF 1887.—"THE PANSIES."

"Neglect not the gift that is in thee."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. Frank Russell, 51 E. Mohawk St., Oswego, N. Y.

Western Secretary—K. A. Burnell, Esq., 150 Madison Street, Chicago, Ill.

Eastern Secretary—J. A. Steven, M. D., 164 High Street, Hartford, Conn.

Treasurer—Either Secretary, from whom badges may be obtained.

Executive Committee—The officers of the Class.

The latest subscription to the Fountain Pansy Plat is one

of two dollars, from Mrs. George H. Johnston of Stonewall, Manitoba.

Despite the too gradual coming in of contributions to the Pansy Fountain Plat, there threatens to be a debt to be exhibited to the Class the coming summer, unless many soon avail themselves of the delightful joy of sending on their mite.

The decorative talent and the floral ambition of the Pansies should bud forth brightly this summer. The pleasing task is before our Class of appropriately arraying Chautauqua for the triumphal march and commencement exercises of our illustrious forerunners, "The Progressives." Pansies will blossom profusely on that occasion.

In one of the earliest issues of the August *Assembly Herald* may be expected the announcement of the place and hour for the Pansy competitive examination on the year's reading, for the prizes already set forth. The enthusiasm attending this feature of our Class life is very gratifying.

Many Pansy letters of late are accusing THE CHAUTAUQUAN of being increasingly better.

The competitive examination of the Class of '87, on the readings of the year just closed will take place on the 17th of August at Chautauqua. There will be six lists of questions, the subjects and prizes for which are given in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for May, page 475. Numerous letters are hereby answered: 1st, No lists of questions will be mailed to anyone for examinations away from the above day and place: 2nd, None but members of the Class of '87 will take the examination. These two provisions were fixed by vote of the Class last summer.

FRANK RUSSELL, Pres't Class of '87.

CLASS OF 1888.—"THE PLYMOUTH ROCK."

"Let us be seen by our deeds."

CLASS ORGANIZATION.

President—The Rev. A. E. Dunning, Boston, Mass.

Vice-Presidents—Prof. W. N. Ellis, Brooklyn, N. Y.; the Rev. Wm. G. Roberts, Rochester, Mich.

Secretary—Miss M. E. Taylor, Cleveland, Ohio.

Treasurer—Mrs. W. Chenault, Fort Scott, Kansas.

Items for the '88 column should be sent to Rev. C. C. McLean, St. Augustine, Florida.

It was difficult, that Roman enigma in the '88 column for May, but a few mastered it. Here is the answer: "Better the chance of shipwreck on a voyage of high purpose than expend life in paddling hither and thither on a shallow stream to no purpose at all."—Miss Sedgewick.

CLASS OF 1889.

CLASS ORGANIZATION.

President—Prof. J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.

Vice-President—The Rev. M. H. Ewers, Martinville, Ill.

Treasurer—R. H. Bosworth, Newburgh, N. Y.

Secretary—Geo. J. Presbrey, Washington, D. C.

Assistant Secretary—Miss Nellie Haywood, Pana, Ill.

Items for the Class column of 1889 should be sent to Miss Eva D. Mattoon, De Funiak Spring, Florida.

Attention, '89's! It is requested that all members of the Class of '89 at once send in their votes for the Class name and motto. The names to be voted on are, Washington and Immortelles; the mottoes, "Duties are ours, events are God's," and "Knowledge unused for the good of others is more vain than unused gold." The votes should be sent to Miss Eva D. Mattoon, De Funiak Springs, Florida, before

June 1, in order that the result may be recorded in the July issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

The Bryant Circle, Chambersburg, Pa., says, "Please count thirteen votes for Immortelles and for the Class motto, 'Knowledge unused for the good of others, is more vain than unused gold.'"

Greenville, Kentucky, must find a safer hiding place than a Roman enigma if it would conceal its motto from the Chautauqua solvers. Everybody knows now that it is, *nulla dies sine linea*.

HIDDEN WORDS.

In what noted Roman author's name can be found—

- A religious recluse;
- A metal;
- An ancient language;
- An iron pin;
- An insect;
- A relative;
- The product of a tree;
- A preposition;
- An extremity;
- A bird;
- A kind of egg;
- A large cask;
- An article much used in time of war;
- Used in firing a canon;
- A bed-cover;
- A blemish;
- A color.—*A member of the Class of '89.*

THE POST GRADUATE CLASSES.

CLASS OF 1882.—"THE PIONEERS."

"From height to height."

President—A. M. Martin, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Vice-Presidents—Judge Henderson Elliott, Dayton, O.; the Rev. Dr. S. J. M. Eaton, Franklin, Pa.

Secretary—Mrs. E. F. Curtiss, Geneseo, N. Y.

Treasurer—A. D. Wilder, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Members of the Class of 1882 will be interested in knowing that the Class building at Chautauqua is now well under way. The building will be completed during the winter so that members of the Class who make an early pilgrimage to Chautauqua in the spring will have an opportunity of seeing it upon their arrival. The contract price for the building is seven hundred dollars. The amount now subscribed toward it is a little less than six hundred dollars. Therefore over a hundred dollars more are needed in order to complete the building, and it is desirable that another hundred dollars should be raised for its furnishing. Members of the Class of 1882 who have yet failed to contribute toward this object can remit to the treasurer, Mr. A. D. Wilder, Chautauqua, New York.

Those of the Class of 1882 in possession of any items of interest concerning the "Pioneers" will confer a favor by furnishing the same to A. M. Martin, Pittsburgh, Pa.

At Chautauqua last summer the Class of 1882, through some of its members, pledged itself to purchase one of the chime of bells. The bell selected is to cost four hundred dollars. In order to secure this bell to the Class it is necessary that the members should subscribe for eight hundred copies of Dr. Vincent's book, "The Chautauqua Movement." Members of the Class of 1882 should, therefore, in sending in their subscriptions, take pains to note the fact that they are members of the "Pioneer Class" and desire their subscriptions to be so entered. It would be a pleasing feature if the

members of the Class of 1882 could show by the amount of their subscriptions for this purpose that they are not only in name "Pioneers," but also in the advance as promoters of this project.

CLASS OF 1883.

Not only post-graduates but all Chautauquans will find the following letter helpful reading:

LOFTCHA, BULGARIA, October 14, 1885.

A solitary member of the Class of '83 sends greeting. From the top of Shipka Pass, on "Opening Day," August 4, I sent my good wishes and my tenderest thoughts out into the wild air, over land and sea, to Chautauqua, but there was no telegraph to carry them and the birds of the air do not fly so far.

I thought of our Class motto as I stood looking down over the steep road up which I had climbed, step by step. I had "gained the heights," and a magnificent prospect lay spread out before me. It was a peaceful scene that bright August day, but I thought of another August day, eight years before, when those cliffs were echoing with the din of war and the beautiful plain below was covered with the bodies of dead soldiers.

It was a time and place for reverie, but the day was waning and there was still a long ride down the pass and over the plain before we came to the night's resting place; then a long day's ride to Philippopolis, and three days more to Samakov, where I was to stop; all this on mule back and in carriage.

A few weeks later I returned by way of Sophia and Plevna, thus completing a circle and a journey exceedingly interesting in its historical associations, and also on account of recent political events in Rumelia.

I have followed with great eagerness the Chautauqua program for the year; have read the lectures; have listened to the sweet music of the new chime (in imagination); have rejoiced at the erection of the new Normal building (for which I will send my contribution as soon as possible); and so though a solitary worker, Chautauqua has been a blessing to me as never before.

I hope some day to report a Local Circle formed here, but so far, the study of a new language and the every day duties connected with the school have left me little time and strength for outside work.

LINNA A. SCHENCK.

CLASS OF 1885.

The address of Mr. J. B. Underwood, President, has been changed to No. 357 Howard Avenue, New Haven, Conn.

A descriptive circular of the Class of '85 memorabilia has been issued, and all members are earnestly requested to respond immediately on receipt of circular.

The address of the secretary, Miss M. M. Canfield, will be for the present, Chardon, O.

Mrs. Frank Beard, the Class poetess, and the Rev. E. E. Hale, the orator of the Class, were made honorary members of the Class of '85 at Chautauqua in August last.

Members of the Class of 1885 who expect to receive a copy of the Class memorabilia must remit the money with their order at once, as the number of copies necessary to its publication have not yet been subscribed, for not only does the delay render it more difficult to compile such a book, but also unless they are so received by the close of the present Chautauqua season, the committee will no doubt think it best to return the subscriptions to those who have already sent them, and make no further effort to issue a souvenir. Arrangements have been made to make this a very interesting and valuable book aside from the beauty which we expect in its typography, but we cannot delay its publication beyond this season. Do not procrastinate. Do not let this, one of the best of all our plans, be the first to fail of accomplishment.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

WELCOME TO 1886.

We offer our hearty congratulations to the C. I. S. C. graduating class of 1886. The class is larger than any of its predecessors—that hardly need be said, so well-established is the reputation of Chautauqua for growth. Everything about the institution grows, and the graduating classes grow as a simple matter of good manners and of conformity to the law of the place. Like their predecessors, the members of the class of 1886 have done a wise thing, persevered in doing it, and come to the end of it bravely. What they have gained by pursuing the course has cost them very little and enriched them more than they can realize. The studies have required a continuous attention, and this has involved a discipline of endurance and patience. The readings have been suggestive and stimulating, have set the members of the class thinking, and have led them to other reading. An appetite for knowledge has in some of the members become fixed and grown large; in others old appetites for information have been strengthened. The good of the course pursued and finished is incalculable if it be only in the pursuing and the finishing of it. The runner in the ancient games had the joy of running even though he won no prize. So in our course (*cursus*, a running) the exercise of the faculties in the race more than compensates the student. No man ever pursued knowledge without reward; though he fail to overtake what he desires to know, he still has the training of the effort itself.

But much more comes of such a course of study. It has changed the student. By insensible gradations you have entered upon a new life. A different world is about you; it has come to pass that you love and desire much the things you formerly loved and desired little. You have eyes for things once unseen, love for things once uncared for. The changes are for the better; not one is for the worse. That is the excellence of a course of instruction and discipline—it improves, elevates, perfects, character and powers. No members of the class of 1886 *would* sell the gains of this course now finished; and no one *could* sell them because they are incorporated into the very selfhood of each one. Nor does the advantage end here. The course inducts those of you who complete it into a brotherhood which will have value and interest as long as you live. These links of attachment will grow stronger and not weaker. They bind you to the older classes, they will attach you to all the classes yet to follow. You enter a circle which gives you friends all round the world.

Go to your Assembly to graduate. Most of you will have some "outing" this year; make a brave effort to get to the roof-tree of your new home. It is the best place for any one to go at the Assembly season; it is the only place for a graduate to go for Graduation Day. If any outing be possible, it should be a trip to an assembly, if only for a day. The programs for this year will be full of things which are to be had only at these places. It will be the best season, the most delightful and most glorious season. Plan early to be there and to enjoy the rest, the work, the change, and, above all, *your* Graduation Day. If unfortunately you cannot go in person, go in thought. Note in the published programs the day and hour of the graduating exercises and have your own home celebration of the event. Better still, send some friend to see what you cannot see. Stir up some neighbor to pursue the course, and in the year to come keep on thinking kind thoughts of the circle, and all that belongs to the circle. It will cheer you in sad hours to let your thoughts fly off to the associations you have entered into this year by graduating in the C. I. S. C. Continue to study and grow in knowledge and in the discipline of knowledge, and so honor the Chautauqua which honors you by

enrolling you among its graduates. Welcome to this home of your mind and heart! Make it more and more a home by loving it, and laboring for its welfare.

GLADSTONE'S SPEECH FOR IRELAND.

Sydney Smith once characterized Ireland as "The Garret of the World." What would this wit say of Ireland were he now alive? Parnell, as unique a character in politics as Sydney Smith in literature, has succeeded in pushing Gladstone into position before the civilized world where he stands pleading for Ireland, and this is the burden of his appeal, "The Irish are loyal—trust them—let them make the laws under which they live." The ideas look very much like one or two things which Thomas Jefferson put into the Declaration of Independence; for instance, "All men are created free and equal" and "have the inalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Gladstone did not quote from our great Declaration, nor did he say anything about our republican form of government, but the spirit of "American Independence" and our type of political liberty made the heart and soul of his great speech. Our civilization is repeating itself in other lands, but nowhere have we witnessed such a bold and emphatic application of the American doctrine of a government by the people, for the people, and of the people, as that Gladstone made in the House of Commons on April 8, 1886. Parnell made the opportunity by his sagacious and adroit management in the years that are past, and he clenched the nails Gladstone drove that very day when he said that the sympathy of both the great parties, Republican and Democratic, in America are with these principles. He was right, but it seemed a little ungracious to publish the fact in the House of Commons, when he knew that England, if ready to learn lessons of political liberty, would prefer some other example than that furnished on this side the Atlantic.

Gladstone's lesson is a correct one—how it will be used remains to be demonstrated. In the mean time no student of passing events will fail to observe that it is a peaceable political conflict that is being waged by Parnell, Gladstone, and their followers. It is a compliment to both English and Irish character that the contest is peaceable, in the House of Commons and not on the field of battle, by arguments and not bullets. The methods employed, indicate a century of progress they mark a high standard of intelligence and a commendable willingness among the English and Irish people to get at the truth by the divine process—as suggested by the Scripture—"Come let us reason together." Perceived in this nineteenth century Ireland is the garret of Europe where are stowed away the ideas and paraphernalia of a system of self-government which are to be brought into use. Parnell and Gladstone have asked England to come up to a high plane, in fact there is no higher plane for a civil government than that the old hero explained—"trust them—they are loyal—let them make the laws under which they live." This is not the language of a demagogue or a party politician, but of a statesman who has learned how a government for men should be framed. It has required one hundred years of experience and observation before we could witness the premier of England—the chief officer under the Queen, standing in the House of Commons pleading for the adoption of this initial truth in the government of a people. If Gladstone's plan is defeated by the votes of English members, it will be only for a day. The principle has found a voice near the throne, and it will echo and re-echo in every land where England has set up her standard. Gladstone will be greater than Cromwell. In the sympathies of the common people he will be the "King of England."

THE NEW MONOPOLISTS—THE LABOR AGITATIONS.

We have a very hearty sympathy with the efforts to maintain the favorable conditions of American wage-earners, and to improve those conditions in the exceptional cases which call for relief. But we have no sympathy with the theory that labor is in general distress in this country, nor do we believe there is the least justification for ninety per cent of the strikes of the last two months. Indeed, most of them which have attained sufficient notoriety to justify a judgment upon them, appear to have been strikes not against employers but against fellow-workmen; and at this writing the organized laborers stand before the country—in so far as they are supporting strikes—in the attitude of assailants of the rights of the individual workman. The circumstances would seem to call for emphatic repudiation by several unions of the persecution of unorganized labor, which has been waged by unionists; but we have not noticed the faintest sign that the leaders of these unions comprehend the situation, or realize that the general public proposes to protect at all hazards the rights of free American citizens who refuse to join the secret, oath-bound organizations. The existing troubles may be arrested for a time by other agencies, but there can be no final settlement of these questions until the right of a wage-earner to stand outside all labor-unions is conceded by members of the unions. The rights of employers are of some importance, but the rights of independent workmen are of far more present importance. Employers can go out of business; but the unions propose to shut a man up to the choice of submitting his interests to the control of a secret organization, or of being excluded from the right to labor. This issue raised by various labor-unions rises high above all others. An attempt is making on a large scale to enslave American labor, and it cannot be permitted to succeed. The terrible cry of "Scab" means murder of every precious right of a citizen of this Republic; for a "Scab" is simply a free man who is struggling to remain free. Mr. Powderly and some other sweet-voiced prophets of the millennium of labor have not, so far as we have seen, uttered one word in condemnation of the outrages upon the rights of free men, which are contained in the demands of the representatives of the unions all over the land. Fine words are employed on doubtful questions of the duties of capital, but no kind of word in condemnation of the most gross violation of the sacred rights of free labor. It is, we repeat, the real issue of the pending contest, and it will not be settled until "Scab" becomes a title of honor, or the claim of unions to control labor is withdrawn. The right of laboring men to organize is freely conceded on all hands; we have never seen a denial of it. We are not aware of any disposition to deny it. It is a very senseless thing to clamor for that right as though it were disputed. If the clamor means anything, it is a cover for a claim that "Scabs" shall be starved into surrendering their liberty—it means nothing, or it means the right to compel unwilling men to join the oath-bound secret unions.

We acquit the organized laborers of the charge that they have caused bloodshed in a dozen American towns. We should acquit them with more emphasis, and greater assurance that we render a just verdict, if their crusade against the independent American workman had not, in the opinion of that workman, taken on a violent, malicious, and inhuman character. The bloody and idle socialists and anarchists have had to go but a little way in advance of the men who have killed engines, ditched trains, and mobbed workmen who dared to work without permission of the new order of despots. The strikers have led up to the point where the anarchist begins his saturnalia of ruin. We say again, this contest cannot end until the free unorganized laborer is in full enjoyment of his rights as an American citizen. To this question, the unionists of labor must speak. If their right to organize, means in their mouths the right to coerce all labor and to control it, the battle is but just begun. Of all monopolies, this is the most dangerous. This country will not submit to it. As yet the chiefs of these monopolies of labor seem to be indifferent to the disgust of the people. Let them beware. There is a

tide rising which will sweep them away. The workmen who have lost millions in wages and the large body of people who are not rich, have suffered enough from other monopolists, but two months of the new monopolists have cut deeper into the flesh than any other monopoly ever did in the same length of time. Industry and trade could not bear a whole year of such oppression. They must resist or perish. They will resist. The most sacred duty of employers is to defend against these grasping monopolies the manhood and independence of the American wage-earner. Many employers will, for present ease or profit, neglect this great duty; but we believe that the majority will resist the unrighteous demands of the unions.

EVIDENCES OF NEW TIMES AND NEW MEN.

The number of conspicuous men who have ceased to live during the last five years is remarkable. Looking back for a few months, and confining our view to this country, such names as John B. Gough, Generals McClellan, Hancock, and Grant, Horatio Seymour, and many others occur to the reader. If we look at public life, we see a president who five years ago was hardly known outside the city of Buffalo, a cabinet half of whose members have as short a period of fame, a Congress in which most of the leading names began to be frequently mentioned only a few years ago, a Senate filling up with new men, and governors of states the majority of whom have as yet no national reputation. Looking at literature, half the most-mentioned names have shot up into notice during a decade. Looking at the churches, a long catalogue of influential names has been added to the rolls in recent years, and some of them (as for example Sam Jones) were put on the list only last year or the year before. It is the same over the sea. Bismarck and Gladstone are still in all men's mouths; but what a crowd of their contemporaries has passed away! In France hardly a great name is ten years old. Even the venerable President Grévy came to fame within that period. In science, a few old names such as Asa Gray (the first botanist of the world), Tyndall, Huxley, and Spencer, remain at the front, but the new names cover the greater portion of the field. The change in all forms of public life and conspicuousness is wonderful to one who stops to look over lists and compare 1876 with 1886.

It is evident, too, that great changes are passing over the times. Edison, who was unknown in 1876, is working wonders with electricity, and the wise man is prepared for any invention by that cunning mind. The world's trade is in an incessant change to new lines. Steel is becoming cheaper than iron, wheat goes from the Argentine Republic half way round the world to feed Southern Europe, and Italian laborers go to South America to get harvest wages for a few weeks, as once men traveled a score or two score miles on the same errand. Those who make haste to attach the word "new" to their method in education, in mathematics, in politics, in agriculture, and in mechanics are not altogether wrong. There is a "new" element everywhere in thought and action. This new element is larger than it is wont to be. This is a period of rapid change. It may not all be wholesome; but it is, whether it be wholesome or not. The new men have their new ideas and methods, and the result is new times—a new world blossoming with its spring-time under our feet.

The facts of change are properly first thought of. The old we know and are not afraid of; it is the new which makes the timorous shiver with apprehension. The old is always in thought and action the larger, by far the larger, part. The persistence of sunshine and rain, seed time and harvest, are more important facts than steam plows and threshers; but who shall challenge us for thinking most of the labor-saving inventions? That in man which undergoes no change is more than the novelty of man's thinking or the latest fancy in his feeling. Yet it is a fact that the Mikado music is more popular than Verdi's operas. Shakspeare is greater than the crowd of novelists; but it is a fact that the novelists are more read than he is.

The average man owes himself a duty in this matter. He cannot

keep the world from moving. He is altogether absurd if he supposes it is going to stand still. Old political cries, old war cries in thought, old polemics between Christians, have ceased to interest the new mankind, and the wise man will try to discover the direction of the stream and keep it so well in view that he may see its dangerous tendencies and its happy transitions to fairer fields. Perhaps he can do something, if he keeps the stream in sight, to modify its course; he can do nothing to check its everlasting motion. The world is not growing atheistic or communistic or rotten. It is growing into faith in God the Father, into philanthropy, into renovation of the forms and spirit of human life. It is facing its evils bravely and hopefully. It is less and less willing to believe that poverty, shame, crime, misery, cannot be met with relief and purgation. The new

world on which we are entering is the twentieth century. The centuries usually anticipate their mission. This nineteenth century began with the French Revolution of 1789—and the extension of the bounds of liberty and the democratizing of government have been the chief characteristics of the hundred years almost finished. If we can guess the business of the twentieth century, we foresee a great philanthropic movement—a popularizing of all knowledge, a distribution of all blessings, an equalizing of opportunity in life—as the aim of the coming time. This would be the translation of the old religion into its practical utility and value—its transfiguration into its long-hoped-for reality, pure love to God and man, *in action*. The swift changes mean good and not evil. A better world is coming to us over the rim of the twentieth century.

EDITOR'S NOTE-BOOK.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN is to have a local habitation. The editor has laid the first brick with his own hand. On the corner of Park Avenue and Center Street, in the city of Meadville, Pennsylvania, a brick block is building as a home for the magazine. The architect of the building is Mr. Jacob Snyder, of Akron, Ohio. A mixture of the Gothic and Roman styles of architecture has been chosen for the block, with what promises to be an excellent effect. The building will be one hundred eight feet long, by forty in width. It will stand on a heavy stone foundation and be faced with rough stone trimmings. In the basement will be the store-rooms and stereotyping room. On the first floor the composing-room, press-room, mailing-room, stitcher's and binder's department, and the private office of the manager of the printing department will be situated. On the second floor will be the editorial rooms, proof-reading room, business offices, and wrapper-writers' room. The October number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be issued from quarters all our own, and in every way worthy, we trust, of the magazine and its friends.

In only one way can those Chautauquans who are unable to go to Chautauqua in July and August have a daily taste of its pleasures and opportunities, through the *Assembly Daily Herald*. The mission of the *Herald* is to catch the spirit of the great summer university, embalm it, and send it forth to its readers. For ten years it has carried on its summer campaign in the woods, printing and sending forth daily over six thousand copies of an eight-page paper. This paper contains the cream of the Chautauqua platform. Over seventy lectures appear in its pages. The methods and manners of every class-room are analyzed and given in full. The great multitude of famous people who visit the lake are noticed in sketches and personals. In short, the *Herald* is Chautauqua on paper. As we begin the eleventh year of this work we would call the attention of those interested in Chautauqua to our very advantageous Combination Offer of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for 1886-87, and the *Herald* for 1886. To all those sending us subscriptions before August 1, we will send the two for \$2.25. For the young folks of the country we publish the *Chautauqua Boys and Girls*, a four-page paper, in twelve numbers. This daily does for the young just what the *Herald* does for their elders. Its price is fifty cents for the volume; in combination with THE CHAUTAUQUAN and *Herald*, \$2.70.

The closer we come to CHAUTAUQUA FOR 1886, the brighter shine its lights. Count them as we pass: an eight-weeks program; an ideal trip through England; a Teachers' Retreat with unequalled instructors; ten lectures from Prof. C. T. Winchester of Wesleyan University—to listen to him has the same charm which Lowell and Whipple have exercised and do still when they speak; Mr. A. P. Burbank; Will Carleton; Gen. Lew Wallace;

the chaplain of the U. S. House of Representatives, the Rev. W. H. Milburn; Sam Jones; Prof. W. G. Sumner; the Rev. Edward Everett Hale; Prof. B. P. Bowne; Mrs. Mary A. Livermore; George W. Cable in two readings from his own works; the Schubert Quartet; Flagler, the superb; the Rollicky Amherst Glee Club; the Rock Band; the latest methods in language teaching; Signor Vitale; every form of recreation;—But it is useless to enumerate. Only a program for each of the fifty-six days can contain the Chautauqua lights for 1886.

It is a relief to find even one point in the labor troubles which can be dealt with summarily. There can be no question about boycotting. It is illegal. The public will not endure it. No event of the two past tumultuous months has given the satisfaction of the plucky resistance of Mrs. Gray, the New York baker, to the demands of a Baker's Union that she should hire union-men or pay the fine prescribed. She refused to do either. Immediately a conspiracy to break down her business was formed. Circulars and "sandwich men" took possession of her neighborhood. Grocers who had taken her bread were intimidated. But the union had mistaken its weapon. It was too big to manage. The public *en masse* bought pies and cakes and bread which it didn't want, and the poor were feasted to satiety for the sake of supporting a woman who knows what liberty means and intends to have it in a free country. In the end the law took hold of the matter and compelled the boycotters to desist.

In fining the bakers who had participated in the boycott against Mrs. Gray, Justice Duffy told the men that they were not the only ones who wanted their wages raised, that all of us, himself included, want more pay. He is right. We all want an advance, but while there is a class which believes that the boycott and strike is the way to obtain this increase, there is another, and let us be thankful that it is the larger, which knows that thrift, hard-work, and steady self-improvement are the only healthy means to getting our wages raised.

The bloody work in Chicago in the earliest days of May had one consoling feature. It proved that it takes less bloodshed and destruction to bring men to their senses than it did one hundred years ago, that the self-control and common-sense of the mass are greater.

Of the twenty-two members of the New York City Board of Aldermen of 1884 all but two have been indicted for bribery in connection with the granting of the franchise of the Broadway Surface Railway. The personal careers of the majority of these men are painful revelations of the depth of degradation into which city politics have fallen. All of them are speculators in office, and office spoils. New York's present disgrace is

the work of her "best" citizens. When men do not value clean government enough to fight for it, if necessary, they must not complain if scoundrels rule them.

The world is still far from knowing thoroughly the lesson of the "stitch in time." A dam in East Lee, Mass., is known to be weak. It is talked about, but nothing done. Suddenly it breaks. Nine lives are lost and a hundred homes laid bare. The business streets of Montreal are known to be below the high water mark. Nothing is done. The ice breaks up, thirty thousand people suffer loss, and property far more than sufficient to have raised the streets or moved the entire business quarter is destroyed. A shanty on posts near Bradford, Pa., is manifestly unsafe. Nothing is done. One night it topples over, catches fire, and six men lose their lives. But the *Note-Book* is not large enough to contain the list of casualties that need not have been, had every one done as well as he knew.

We are to have two new dictionaries, made out of old ones to be sure, but so remodeled as to be up to the times. The first is a revision of Webster, now being made at New Haven under the direction of President Noah Porter, of Yale College. It will make little change in the generally accepted forms of spelling, will Anglicize words as far as possible, and will include many recent words conveying distinct ideas, as "dude" and "boycott." The second is a new work founded on the English Imperial Dictionary. Professor W. D. Whitney is editor-in-chief, and the *Century* Company publishes it. The remarkable part of their work will be a change we shall welcome. The phonetic system of spelling will be largely adopted.

America is to have a library worthy of her name. England has the British Museum, Rome the Vatican, France the National, Germany the Royal of Berlin, St. Petersburg her Imperial,—nearly every great city of Europe has a library superior in number of volumes and MSS., in convenience of arrangement, and in efficiency of librarians, to anything in America. Now we are to build a rival. The new Congressional Library at Washington should be equal if not superior in arrangement to any library building in the world. The builders have the experience of the world to guide them, and a people of unequalled generosity to sustain their action. After thirteen years of work to secure an appropriation, a bill was passed on April 5, authorizing the erection of the necessary building. The plan adopted is admirable. The estimated cost is \$2,323,000. It is to be hoped that nothing will interfere with the speedy completion of the work.

There is a catalogue lying before us of a woman's benevolent association in one of our larger cities. The organization promises to furnish employment to all self-supporting women, "except servants." This clause strikes us very like snobbery. It puts a stigma on a kind of work most honorable, and in which hundreds of girls toiling in factories and shops would be happier and more useful. How does this discrimination compare with the following quoted from a private letter from a favorite contributor to *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: "One of the most gifted contributors of *The Independent* wrote and sent in articles while a servant on Staten Island, and came introduced by George William Curtis."

The successful journey which Mr. Thomas Stevens is now making around the world on a bicycle, leads to two very interesting reflections. The first is that lovers of travel for health, adventure, and impressions, have at their disposal a machine which makes them in the main independent of transportation companies. The second is that there is comparatively little of the world that is not open and safe for travelers. This latter point Mr. Stevens' journey demonstrates clearly. After wheeling his way through Europe and Asia Minor to Teheran, Mr. Stevens proposes to follow the route through Bokhara, Samarkand, and Tashkend into Siberia, thence east to Irkutsk and southeast

through the Gobi desert to Peking.—A trip two thirds of which at least would have been an impossibility ten years ago.

The approach of the day for laying the corner stone of the Confederate Monument at Montgomery, Alabama, called forth a host of reminiscences concerning Mr. Jefferson Davis. One of the pleasantest is the story of his reconciliation with ex-President Zachary Taylor. It will be remembered that Mr. Davis eloped with Mr. Taylor's only daughter. A newspaper correspondent thus tells the story:

"Gen. Taylor never forgave either Davis or his daughter until the night after Davis led the famous charge of his regiment of Mississippi riflemen at Buena Vista. About midnight an orderly presented himself at Col. Davis' tent, and announced that Gen. Taylor wished to see him at headquarters immediately. The two men had never spoken since the one had stolen the daughter of the other. Davis knew the passionate temper of the old man, and instantly conjectured that the sudden and peremptory summons boded no good to him. In deep anxiety he hurried to the General's tent, entered the door, and saluted, without speaking or moving a step inside. The door was closed in a moment, and 'Old Rough and Ready,' with his arms outstretched, rushed forward and embraced his long-ignored son-in-law, exclaiming, 'My daughter knew you better than I did. Forgive me! Forgive me!' "The reconciliation so dramatically brought about was a lasting one, and to the day of Old Zach's death, sixteen months and four days after his inauguration as President of the United States, he and Mr. Davis were friends."

It will be quite proper, we think, to claim the new commander of the Military Department of the Atlantic, the successor of General Hancock, for Chautauqua. Major-General J. M. Schofield to whom the department has been given is a native of Chautauqua County, New York, and passed his early life within sight of Chautauqua Lake. Gen. Schofield is a West Point man, served through the war with constantly advancing position, has been one year Secretary of War, and comes to his present place from the command of the Department of the Missouri.

This impression of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* contains an article on Obstacles to Good Legislation from Hon. T. B. Reed of Maine, which we believe our readers ought to carefully ponder. To one clause in particular we call attention:

"The great obstacle (to good legislation) is not inside of Congress but outside. Intelligent legislation implies not merely an intelligent people, but a uniformly intelligent people. Legislation never falls far below the average intelligence of the people, and can never rise far above it. Congress is above all things a representative body. Congress is not the cause of action. It is the resultant."

All of which means if you would have good laws demand them, create opinion for them, educate your community to the point where it will take nothing else.

The present attitude of Greece toward Turkey and the Powers reads not a little like the story of Thermopylae and Marathon. To the ultimatum dispatched by the Powers ordering her to disarm, or the demand would be enforced, the Government replied that unless her claims were settled soon Greece would declare war, and would "yield only when the Powers had sunk the Hellenic fleet and bombarded Greek towns." Her sturdy spirit is a surprise to the world.

The famous Sorosis Club has just celebrated its eighteenth birthday with a brilliant reception to some three hundred of the leading women of the land. This first of women's clubs grew out of the righteous indignation of a few ladies who had been refused by the Press Club to participate equally with men in the festivities of a Dickens Dinner in 1868. It is wholly under the management of women. Its aim is educational and social. Sorosis' greatest benefit was expressed by Miss Rose Cleveland at the recent celebration when she said that "the club had demonstrated the power of women to hold together in permanent organization."—A power that has contributed an incalculable amount to the relief of the world in the last decade.

If there be anyone who doubts the demand for the Audubon Society for the protection of birds, let him read these figures:

'On Broadway, New York City, one firm buys from five hundred thousand to one million small American birds every year, obtaining them from every state in the Union. Gulls, terns, orioles, crows, blackbirds, bobolinks, snipe, larks, sparrows, etc., are greatly in demand because they are cheap. Another house has five thousand sparrows in stock; and forty thousand pairs of German magpies made up a recent consignment. A million bobolinks are said to have been killed in one month near Philadelphia, and one millinery house had two hundred thousand bird skins on hand at one time.'

We want to put in a plea for the recognition by school boards of morals as a science. Mr. Washington Gladden has recently examined the complete list of questions presented by the county boards of examiners in Ohio to the teachers, and finds that the proportion of moral to other questions is just two to six hundred ninety. We question whether any other commonwealth can make a better showing. If it is quite possible to demonstrate that "virtue alone is happiness here below," (and who doubts it?) seems to us quite as useful a proposition for young minds to learn as that "the square of the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares of the other two sides."

Mr. Richard Proctor in his excellent journal *Knowledge* is publishing an alphabetical series of "Americanisms." Mr. Proctor has traveled widely in America and used his note-book freely, too freely for accuracy in some cases, as when he defines *cookery* as a little cake, meaning, we suppose, a *cooky*. Isolated cases of peculiar uses of words are also included. *Crowd* used in the sense of *squeeze* as "to crowd a person's hand" is quoted. It is possible that there may be such a local use of the word, but it certainly is not sufficiently wide-spread to be called an Americanism.

Worse than the preceding is Mr. Proctor's propensity for putting among his Americanisms mere vulgarities. Who will admit

that such expressions as *broughtens up* for bringing up, *betterments* for improvements, *biled rag* for clean shirt, and *cutting it fat* for overdoing anything, are not vulgarities, and that, too, of mere local circulation.

President Cleveland could not do a wiser thing than to marry. It will be a gratification to the people of the United States to know that the White House is to have at its head a cultivated, womanly woman as the wife of the President. It is certainly an event for national rejoicing, not for a display of national curiosity. We are sorry to note that to so wide an extent the coming wedding has been a subject of annoying, even ill-bred, comment.

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT HOME NEWS FOR APRIL, 1886. Public debt decreased \$14,087,884 in April.—April 1. Strikes in the Southwest, Lynn, Mass., and among the miners of Pennsylvania, continue. Excitement in New York City over aldermen of 1884 accused of bribery.—April 2. Loss of life and property by storm in Alabama.—April 3. Fight between deputies and strikers at Fort Worth, Texas. House passes Labor arbitration Bill.—April 5. Passage of Library Bill in House of Representatives. Mexican War Pension Bill passes House.—April 6. \$1,000,000 fire in Lacrosse, Wisconsin.—April 7. Prof. T. A. Thacher of Yale College dies.—April 8. Many persons killed in a railroad accident near Greenfield Mass.—April 9. Twenty-five pension bills passed in House. Six persons killed and several wounded by deputy sheriffs in East St. Louis.—April 12. Indian Appropriation Bill passed the Senate. Thaddeus Fairbanks, inventor of the platform scales, dies at St. Johnsbury, Vt.—April 14. Tornado in Minnesota. Eight boycotters arrested for annoying Mrs. Gray.—April 20. Break in a dam causes loss of nine lives in East Lee, Mass.—April 25. General observance of Easter. Residents of Fort Pierre, Dakota, ordered to close their trading establishments and allowed thirty days to leave reservation.—April 29. Corner-stone of Confederate monument laid in Montgomery, Alabama.

C. L. S. C. NOTES ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR JUNE.

IN HIS NAME.

P. 1. "Sols and deniers." Small French coins. One of the former being worth less than a cent, and one of the latter, less than a mill, of the United States currency.

"Ave Maria." The first words of the Roman Catholic prayer to the Virgin Mary, meaning "Hail, Mary." Webster gives a second meaning to the expression; a particular time, about sunset and at early dawn, when the bells ring, and the people repeat the prayer.

P. 2. "Saracen." A name which was originally applied to an Arab tribe, and afterward to the followers of Mohammed, and then to all the Moors who invaded Europe, and against whom the Crusades were led. The derivation of the word is not certainly known. It is sometimes given as from a word meaning "to plunder," and again from one meaning "to rise," hence, *eastern*, or an eastern people.

"Paynim." Written also *painim*; a word of the same derivation as *pagan* and of essentially the same meaning.

P. 5. "Climacteric." The close of a period of seven years.

P. 6. "Nī-o-be." In Grecian mythology the daughter of Tantalus and wife of the King of Thebes, celebrated for her numerous and beautiful offspring. The most commonly accepted tradition says she was the mother of seven sons and seven daughters, though the number has been variously estimated. She boasted over Latona who had borne only two, Apollo and Diana. Incensed at her presumption in assuming to be more worthy of homage than their mother, these two children slew all of the children of Niobe with their arrows. When all had been killed but the last, the stricken mother clasped her in her

arms and most piteously pleaded with Apollo to spare her, but all in vain. The mother herself was changed to stone.

"Pierre Waldo." Also written Valdo. A chief in the sect of the Waldenses. The Romish church condemned his doctrines, and he and his followers were cruelly persecuted. It is generally supposed that the Waldenses were so-called from his name, but later histories assert that they were an organized body before his time, and that he took his surname from them. He openly denounced the ignorance and the vices of the priests, and advocated the equal rights of laity and clergy in the management of religious offices as Luther did more than three hundred years later. (See Hodgson's "Reformers and Martyrs".)

P. 7. "Romance languages." All the tongues developed from the Latin were called Romance languages. They comprise Provençal, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and others. The language used by the Waldenses if not pure Provençal was at least derived directly from it. The Provençal language was that used by the troubadours, and as they in general ridiculed the clergy and the practices of the Church, they were severely denounced by the clerical party, and in 1245, Pope Innocent IV. forbade the use of this language by all students. The troubadours made great efforts to keep it in existence, but their success was short, and it was soon corrupted and superseded.

P. 8. "Francisco of Assisi," *fran-ches'co as-sē'-ze*. (1182-1230). The order of Mendicant friars known as Franciscans took its name from him, its founder. While very young he relinquished all claim to his inheritance, and resolved to beg for the barest necessities of life. His preaching drew about him great crowds, and he soon had numerous followers who adopted his

mode of life. This fraternity grew very large and influential.

"Chapter of St. John." A religious order known as the Knights Hospitallars of St. John of Jerusalem, which originated in the eleventh century, and which took a very active part in the Crusades. They were known in later history as the Knights of Rhodes, and then as the Knights of Malta.

P. 15. "Tisans," *tiz'-ans*. The word is commonly written *ptisan*, being found in that form in the dictionaries. It is a name applied to diet-drinks.

P. 16. "Sin'a-pism." A poultice composed of mustard and some other ingredients.

P. 22. "O'gier the Dane." A half mystical hero of Denmark. The Danish legend pictures him as "sleeping for ages in a vault under the castle of Kronberg, with his beard grown through a table of stone. At some future time he will awake, break through the table, and rescue his country from the enemies." Another record of him is as follows: He was one of the paladins—or knights—of King Charlemagne. "Various fairies attended at his birth and bestowed upon him divers gifts. Among them was Morgue—the half-sister of King Arthur—who when the knight was a hundred years old embarked him for the castle of Avalon—on an ocean island where King Arthur resided and was buried. The vessel was wrecked, but Ogier heard a voice bidding him 'fear nothing, but enter the castle which I will show thee.' So he got to the island and entered a castle, where he found a horse sitting at a banquet table. The horse whose name was Papillon, and who had once been a mighty prince, conducted him to Morgue the Fay, who gave him a ring which removed all infirmities and restored him to ripe manhood; a Lethian crown which made him forget his country and past life; and introduced him to King Arthur. Two hundred years rolled on, and France was invaded by the Paynims. Morgue now removed the crown from Ogier's head and sent him to defend France. Having routed the invaders, Morgue took him back to Avalon, and he has never re-appeared in this earth of ours." In this later French story the word Dane

means simply a *dene* or dweller in the forest region now called Ardenes.

P. 34. "Forez." An old division of France in the province of Lyonnais, the capital of which was Montbrison, now forming the greater part of Loire.

"John Huss." (1373-1414). A Bohemian reformer. By his efforts the works of Wycliffe were translated into the Bohemian language; but they were soon afterward publicly burned by order of the archbishop. Pope John XXIII. issued a bull against Ladislaus, the King of Naples, which Huss denounced openly. He also condemned the sale of indulgences. For these acts he was excommunicated, and shortly afterward cited to appear before the Council of Constance, which condemned him to be burned at the stake, by order of the emperor, Sigismund, who had treacherously furnished him with a pass.

P. 38. "Seneschal," *Sen'e-shal*. An officer who has the superintendence of feasts and domestic ceremonies.

P. 51. "Bourgeon," *bûr'jun*. A word of Celtic origin meaning to sprout; to put forth buds.

P. 68. "A-ver'rô-ës." A famous Arabian physician and philosopher, who lived in the twelfth century. (See Brucker's "History of Philosophy," and Renan's "Averroes and Averroism.")

"Abulcasis." The most celebrated of all Arabian writers on surgery. Very little is known of his history. He lived in the eleventh or twelfth century. The great medical work written by him is valued most highly, and is by far the best work of its kind that has come down from antiquity.

P. 75. "Lî-poth'y-my." A fainting or swoon.

P. 85. "Claude Francis Menestrier," *me-nes'trê-a*. (1631-1705). A French antiquary; the author of numerous treatises on heraldry, antiquities, etc.

"Montfalcon," Bernard. (1655-1741). The name is also written Montfaucon, A French antiquary and philologist who published many works.

NOTES ON REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

1. "Pumpelly," F. "Geologist in chief of a surveying party which the Russian Government sent to eastern Siberia at the suggestion of Alexander von Humboldt."—*Felix L. Oswald*.

2. "Rei'ki-a-vik."

3. "Jan Mayen," *yan mi'yen*.

4. "Wrangel," Ferdinand Petrovitch, von. (1795-1870). A Russian admiral and navigator. In 1820 he commanded an exploring expedition to the Arctic Sea, and himself traveled in a sledge over the ice as far as 72° 2' north. In 1879 he was sent out by the Russian government as governor over its territory in North America. He published a number of works containing accounts of his travels.

5. "Chamisso," Adelbert, von. *shă-me-so*. (1781-1838). A French poet and naturalist. "About 1790 he emigrated with his family to Berlin, where he became a page to the queen of Prussia and made himself master of the German language, in which his works are written. Having served several years in the Prussian army, he quitted the profession of arms about 1808, and applied himself to natural sciences. He wrote numerous popular lyric poems, and "Peter Schlemihl," (1814,) a singular and interesting story of a man who lost his shadow. In 1814 he was selected by Count Românzoff to accompany as naturalist a scientific expedition round the world, of which he wrote a valuable account, called "Observations during a voyage round the World."—*Lippincott's Biographical Dictionary*.

6. "Kane," Elisha Kent. (1820-1857). An American explorer. He went as surgeon, in 1843, with the embassy to China, and during his absence visited India, Ceylon, and the Philippine Islands. In 1850 when Lieutenant De Haven went in search of Sir John Franklin, Dr. Kane joined the expedition as surgeon. He himself commanded a second expedition sent out for the same purpose in 1835. He wrote an account of both of these voyages, in the latter of which he had discovered the existence of an open polar sea. (See "Biography of Elisha Kent Kane," by William Elder, "Schmucker's Life of Elisha Kent Kane," and *North British Review*, for February 1857.)

7. "Captain Parry," Sir William Edward. (1790-1855.) An English navigator. In 1810 he sailed to the north polar seas, and corrected the charts of those waters. He explored and named Barrow Strait, Prince Regent Inlet, and Wellington Channel, and entered the water which has since been called Parry or Melville Sound. He passed the winter on Melville Island, returned home in November, 1820, and shortly after published an account of his voyage. He made two subsequent visits to the Arctic Ocean but failed to find the northwest passage. He wrote an account of these visits also.

SUNDAY READINGS.

1. "Rossian tube." In 1844 Lord Rosse completed a telescope which has a clear aperture of six feet and a focal length of fifty-three feet. It has no rival in dimensions and in its power to penetrate space. It is located near Parsonstown, King's County, Ireland, and cost sixty thousand dollars. Lord Rosse died in 1867.

2. "Dr. E. F. Burr." (1818—). An American author. In 1839 he graduated at Yale College. In 1850 he accepted a call to become pastor of a Congregational church in Lyne, Conn. He has published "Ecce Cœlum;" "Pater Mundi;" "Ad Fidem;" "Sunday Afternoons;" "Ecce Terra," and other works.

3. "Cal'e-na." A series of things; especially a series of passages selected from authors to illustrate or explain a subject.

4. "Prof. J. C. Shairp." (1819—). A British scholar. "In

1861 he became professor of humanity in Saint Andrew's University, and in 1868, principal of that institution." He is the author of a volume of poems of "Studies in Poetry and Philosophy;" "Lectures on Culture and Religion," and other works.

THE AGE WE LIVE IN.

1. "Nordenskjöld," Adolf Eric, nor'den-skyold. (1832—). A Swedish navigator who gained great distinction by his numerous successful arctic expeditions. "In the steamship Vega he traversed (1878-79) the Arctic Ocean, going eastward from the Atlantic to the Pacific—a feat never before accomplished." He is the author of a volume of "Letters" and of several reports of his voyages.

2. "Speke," John Hanning. (1827-1864). An English naval officer, who made several exploring expeditions to Africa.

3. "Mr. Gladstone's act of 1884." "The act which extended household suffrage to the English counties and to the Irish counties and boroughs. A fresh bill distributing the seats was also passed, which created large numbers of single-member districts, and proportioned the membership of the House of Commons more nearly according to the population." *Towle's Young People's History of England.*

4. "Kossuth," Louis, kosh'oot. (1802—). An eminent Hungarian orator and statesman. He offended his government by joining the popular party and openly opposing the despotic policy of Austria in a paper he was editing. He was tried for treason and was imprisoned for three years. He was set at liberty in 1840, and soon began to edit a daily paper at Pesth, of liberal tone but not democratic. In 1847 the liberal party elected him a member of the Diet, and the following year he was made minister of finance. In the revolts against Hungary, which were secretly aided if not incited by Austria, Kossuth defended by arms the constitution and the national independence. In 1849 the Hungarians renounced allegiance to Austria and chose Kossuth governor. But Russia interfered and again subjugated the brave Hungarians. Kossuth was sent into exile, and was imprisoned in Turkey. With the aid of England and the United States he was released in 1851. Since the re-organization of Austria-Hungary, in 1867, he has been at liberty to return to his own country, but refuses to do so, as he was not pleased with its union with Austria.

5. "Father Mathew" Theobald. (1790-1856). A priest in the Roman Catholic church, who is celebrated throughout Ireland as the great apostle of temperance. "About 1838 he became president of a temperance society, and in a few months administered the pledge to one hundred fifty thousand persons in Cork alone.

He afterward visited different parts of Ireland, the cities of London, Manchester, and Liverpool, and the United States of America, being everywhere received with enthusiasm. For those eminent services in the cause of religion and morality Queen Victoria bestowed upon Father Mathew an annuity of £500."

MATHEMATICS.

1. "King Hiero." The second King of Syracuse bearing this name. He was conquered by the Romans in 264 B. C. and ever after this remained a faithful ally of Rome. He was a good ruler, and his kingdom for many years remained prosperous. He died 216 B. C. For the problem of the crown see the C. L. S. C. notes in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for March.

2. "Whewell," William, hu-el. (1795-1866). An English philosopher and scholar, a professor in Trinity College, and the author of many works on science, among which are "The History of the Inductive Sciences" and "The Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences."

3. "Gibbon," Edward. (1737-1794). A distinguished English historian. See C. L. S. C. notes in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for February.

4. "The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table." Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes.

5. "The Frankenstein monster." Mrs. Shelley, the wife of the English poet, wrote a novel to which she gave the name of "Frankenstein" after the hero. This hero was a young student who had discovered the secret of generation and of life, and who constructed a horrid, soulless monster out of the fragments of men picked up in church-yards and dissecting rooms, and by means of galvanism induced it with a sort of convulsive, spectral life. Existence without companionship and sympathy soon became insupportable to this creature, and it became the agent through which the most direful retribution was brought upon its author. Babbage's machine, which is compared to this monster, was designed for calculating tables, or series of numbers, such as tables of logarithms, sines, etc., and was based upon the fact "that if we begin with one table, and then make a second consisting of the differences between the successive numbers of the first, then a third from the differences of the second, etc., we ultimately reach a table in which all the numbers are the same. Reversing the process, and the first number of each table being given, the first table could be recovered by a series of additions starting from the table of equal numbers. The machine stamps each figure as fast as calculated, upon a stereotype plate, so that no errors of the press could be made in the publication of the tables."

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

"Be ashamed to die until you have won some victory for humanity," were the closing words of Horace Mann's last public address. The history of one who always acted on this advice and rendered his whole life a constant struggle in behalf of the unfortunate, can but be an inspiration to others. And when such a life is written out in a manner fitting its great theme, the public is put in possession of a book for which its warmest thanks are due. Such a book is to be found in "The Life of Horace Mann."* The book is dedicated to the young, and the simple style of its writing only makes the grand simplicity of the noble life stand out more clearly. Mrs. Mann has made up a great part of the work of extracts from the journals and letters of her husband. A clear insight is given into his thoughts and feelings, his motives and actions in all the important positions he was called upon to fill—that of teacher, and great reformer in educational matters, of leading lawyer, and congressman. His decided stand against slavery in the exciting times of 1848-52 is shown in his own words. Had more pains been taken during these times in acquiring that head and heart culture he advocated so strongly and deemed so necessary for the citizens of a republic, many of the latter troubles in our country might have been avoided. After having accepted the secretaryship of the Board of Education in Massachusetts he wrote, "God grant me an annihilation of selfishness, a mind of wisdom, a heart of benevolence."

If to make outline studies and lectures upon a subject harder than the sub-

*Life of Horace Mann. By His Wife. Second Edition. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Price, \$2.50.

ject itself is a mark of success, the Concord School of Philosophy in its course of lectures upon the "Life and Genius of Goethe,"† has certainly hit the mark. If the "greatest genius of the nineteenth century", is to the English-speaking public, as Mr. Calvert says in his book on the "Life and Works of Goethe," "a large, nebulous, remote figure," we wonder what he would appear like to one, who, eager to get a clearer view of him, should seek help from these lectures. We can imagine such a one turning over leaf after leaf of this book with the same result as that experienced by a confused student, should he seek the recitation rooms of some institution of learning only to be more bewildered by the heavy explanations (?) of the teachers. After trying several pages, one's eye lights upon the direct quotations from Goethe as upon oases in the desert. From one fault, however, most of the lecturers are free, that of entirely idealizing the character of their subject. Just criticisms are made. The chapters in which Goethe's stories are retold are interesting, as "Goethe's Märchen," and "Child Life as Portrayed by Goethe." With an involuntary exclamation of relief and delight one reaches the fine lecture on "Goethe's Women," by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe. Perhaps it could not have had a better setting to bring out its merits—Mr. Calvert's work on Goethe† will be found of decidedly different character. It is written in an easy, natural style, and is full of interest. The subject matter is largely drawn from Goethe's "Auto-

*The Life and Genius of Goethe. Edited by F. B. Sanborn. Boston: Ticknor and Co. 1886. Price, \$2.00.

†Goethe. His Life and Works. By George H. Calvert. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1886. Price, \$1.50.

biography," and the author in his comments and conclusions throws light upon his theme all the way along. He, however, proves himself something of a hero worshiper, and shutting his eyes passes lightly over even the most glaring faults in the great man of whom he writes.

In these discouraging times of strikes and lockouts and all the string of evils arising from the troubled relations between capital and labor, it is a relief to strike a book written in the vein of "Triumphant Democracy."* It makes the silver lining of the clouds shine brightly out, and carries assurance that underneath all appearances, patriotism and love of order and law are so strong in all its subjects as to secure the peace and safety of the nation. Mr. Carnegie is an adopted son of America, but he gives to the land of his choice—which in making him the peer of any living man has done infinitely more for him than his mother country, England, could—such a depth and fervency of love as he thinks no native born citizen can understand. The value of the book is greatly enhanced, however, because of the affection which he also retains for England, and the efforts he puts forth to make both lands better known to each other. The book is surprisingly encouraging in many of its carefully-gathered facts and statistics, which the author declares are not in the least overdrawn, but rather understated. The causes of the rapid development of the country are carefully analyzed, and a close study of the political, industrial, and educational interests given. The chapters on "Art" and "Literature" trace the march of culture in the New World. The contrasts drawn throughout the entire work between a monarchical form of government and the republic of the United States can fittingly be summed up in the design on the cover,—two golden pyramids; one, Monarchy, precariously poised on its apex, the other, Republic, securely resting, as a pyramid should rest, upon its base.

Dr. Field's book, "The Greek Islands and Turkey after the War,"† is one which is perhaps best characterized by the expression, a restful book. One catches from every page the reflection of that deep, quiet enjoyment that the author evidently experienced in making this journey, which one can but fancy he undertook, seeking rest, which he found in such full measure that in its overflow it permeated his writing, and now fairly imparts itself to his readers. The countries are first described as they appeared to one keenly alive to the beauty of natural scenery, and then the historical associations which rise up at the sight of each are given, and afterward their present condition is commented on. The record and results of the Crimean War and the Russo-Turkish War, and the history and description of Roumania—that country so much talked of, of late, and so little known—are of especial interest. The work is replete with historical facts. It contains several fine maps.

Count Tolstoi is the favorite Russian writer among us to-day. Three works of his in particular have attracted attention in the last year. The first is "War and Peace."‡ This work published in 1869 dealt with the Napoleonic invasion of 1812. The author had had a training which fitted him well for his undertaking. He belonged to the army, had been in the Crimean War, had moved in the aristocratic circles of Moscow and St. Petersburg, in short knew something of almost every circle of Russian society. In "War and Peace" he uses his varied experience, crowding his stage with a bewildering mass of characters, conditions, and scenes. This treatment adds to the impression of rush and chaos peculiar to the life he depicts, but it does so at the sacrifice of the unity of the romance. One comes from the book with a profound admiration for the keen observation, acute understanding of human nature, and strong situations, but with a certainty that too much has been attempted, that neither plot nor theories are satisfactory. The elements of strength in "War and Peace" come to perfection in "Anna Karenina."§ The publication of this story was undertaken in 1875 in the *Russian Contemporary*, and although of a length that would have killed an average work, the public never lost its interest. "Anna Karenina" is a double story—two plots, two heroes, two heroines, two kinds of life, but so cunningly interwoven that the result seems one. This double plot is a skillful maneuver to bring into contrast the unrest, falsity, and shallowness of the gay and immoral life of the Russian court circles and the genuine satisfactions to be found in a quiet, pure, and industrious home life; to prove that the law that sin must be punished is fixed and immutable, that love can be no excuse for wrong doing. Tolstoi is a realist; not of the coarse school which finds in realism an excuse for portraying revolting passions and crimes, but of that higher school whose subtle analysis of character and fine observations of moods and manner teach us to know ourselves and others. These qualities are at their best in "Anna." The problem of religion is hinted at in both these books, and in his latest volume, "My Religion"¶ Tolstoi gives his belief. After thirty years spent as a nihilist he turns to the Gospel of Jesus Christ, but does not, as may be expected, accept the doctrines of the orthodox church. He makes the essence of religion "love, humility, self-denial", and affirms that the doctrines of the New Testament should be applied to courts of justice as to individuals. Out of his religion he would build a new social system based on Jesus' law, where courts would not exist, where "resist not evil" would be the paramount teaching, and where "love your enemies" would mean that all national and class distinctions are to be

broken down. So far so good. Tolstoi makes the mistake of his book when he affirms that the church does not teach that the doctrines of Jesus are practical, and that consequently the results of Christ's teaching up to this time have been practically nothing. To the contrary the church teaches nothing else, and any one who looks fairly at the history of the world must admit that whatever the mistakes of the orthodox church it is surely bringing the world around to the time of peace on earth.

In "Witnesses from the Dust,"* Dr. Fradenburg has made a very successful attempt to popularize the material which the results of recent explorations and discoveries in the Orient have placed in the hands of scholars. In brief chapters and in plain and simple language, he has shown how the spade—"the magic wand of the explorer"—has given strong confirmation to the Bible record. Concerning the "exodus" he has given several traditions handed down among the Egyptians clearly pointing to that event, attended by the mortification of defeat to them. The book shows careful research and great study, and will give to many information which, without it, would be entirely out of their reach.

The strain of a long story has proved itself to be in no way exhaustive to the peculiar character of Mr. Stockton's genius. "The Late Mrs. Null,"† a very brief period of whose life requires nearly four hundred fifty pages for its narration, completely absorbs one's attention from the moment of introduction. The old theory that man is the master of circumstances has to fall to the ground in the face of the experience of Mr. Croft, who is continually and most effectively prevented from ever saying the thing which he was most firmly resolved to say. The chimerical existence of Mr. Null and the influence he exerted over so many lives is one of those fanciful creations which will match the invention of "Negative Gravity." The woful picture of a man caught in his own trap, was never more vividly drawn than that of Mr. Robert Brandon. All who delight in trying to tell how a plot is going to turn out will have a fine opportunity to work over such an enigma in this book, only to find that they have never come within gun-shot of the real dénouement.

"The Sphinx's Children"‡ is the name given to a delightful collection of short sketches and stories by Rose Terry Cooke. The first article gives the name to the book and is written in the peculiarly graceful style which distinguishes this writer and which leaves the impression that a poet is trying to write prose. Surely no thought could be more poetical than that all the hard-hearted, selfish, cruel people, who work so much misery in the world, are the descendants of the Sphinx, and that even her heart was saved from agony and remorse at their deeds, from the fact that, after the birth of her children, that culminating hour in her existence, she was permitted but one long look upon her offspring before she was turned back into stone. The selections combine humor and pathos and show great literary power and skill.

"The Captain of the Janizaries"§ is a historical novel based upon the resistance of Scanderbeg, prince of the Albanians, to the Turks. The outlines of the actual events are so closely woven into the story that the work would serve well as a history of that country during the stormy twenty years or more succeeding 1440; while, at the same time, the real characters with all their true surroundings and associations, take their places as naturally in the run of the story as do the fictitious ones. The reader catches not the slightest trace of coercion in this regard, so often noticed in works of this character, all effort on the part of the author to make things fit being skillfully concealed. The work is one of thrilling interest.

A pleasing and novel hit of literary criticism comes in Andrew Lang's "Letters to Dead Authors."¶ Mr. Lang adopts quite satisfactorily the style of each of his correspondents, writing to Pope in neat distiches, to Isaac Walton in the fisherman's own quaint dialect, to Herodotus with as frequent declarations to "leave it to every man to form his own opinions" as that worthy "father of history" uses himself. We fear that if some of the worthies addressed had received the plain talk that Mr. Lang gives them, on earth, their answers would have been anything but pleasant to read, but as long as there is no fear of a quarrel, the free criticism gives vigor to the book.

—"Young April smiling through her tears,

Her toys the flowers, her grief the vanished snows."

Is celebrated in Mr. Oscar Fay Adams' fifth "Through the Year" volume.‡ A delightful collection it is, too.

"The Standard Operas"*** contain a brief but comprehensive account of the most widely known operas, and sketches of the lives of their composers. In its line it occupies a position corresponding to that of a condensed work on literature, and is a valuable addition to a reference library.

A little book that can enter as a helpful friend into many and many a home all through the land will be found in "The Book Lover."†† It is a guide to

*Witnesses from the Dust. By Rev. A. M. Fradenburg, A. M., Ph. D. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. New York: Phillips & Hunt. 1886. Price \$1.60.

†The Late Mrs. Null. By Frank R. Stockton. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886. Price \$1.50.

‡The Sphinx's Children. By Rose Terry Cooke. Boston: Ticknor and Company. 1886. Price \$1.50.

§The Captain of the Janizaries. By James Ludlow. New York: Dodd, Mead, & Company. 1886. Price \$1.50.

¶Letters to Dead Authors. By Andrew Lang. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

‡April. Edited by Oscar Fay Adams. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. Price, 75c.

***The Standard Operas. By George P. Upton. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg, and Company. 1886. Price, \$1.50.

††The Book Lover. By James Baldwin, Ph. D. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg and Company. 1886. Price, \$1.25.

*Triumphant Democracy. By Andrew Carnegie. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886. Price, \$2.00.

†The Greek Islands and Turkey after the War. By Henry M. Field, D. D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1885. Price, \$1.50.

‡War and Peace. A Historical Novel. By Count Leon Tolstoi. Two Volumes. New York: William S. Gottsberger. 1886.

§Anna Karenina. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoi. In Eight Parts. Translated by Nathan Haskell Dole. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

¶My Religion. By Count Leo Tolstoi. Translated from the French. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

the best things that can be found in literature, and in these days in which literally there is no end of making books, many of which are worthless and worse than worthless, such guidance is in need. The book is a sort of symposium of the best things said by the best men of the best books, and all are threaded together by one whose own knowledge and taste in these matters are so widely known.

Three books of "Talks" have found their way to our table this month; one addressed to boys, one to girls, and the third to older people. To begin with the last, "Right-Life" is a series of lectures delivered with the object of awakening a personal interest in the foundation principles of true living. Such subjects as "The Existence of God," "Revelation Demonstrated," and "Faith and Unbelief" form the themes, which are treated in an interesting, careful, and convincing manner.—"Hold up your Heads, Girls!" is a decidedly practical and bright book, and one which no girl would have to be urged to read. The chapters are all full of meat, and are upon such subjects as "How to Make the Most of Work," "What Can I Do," "Womanliness," and "How to Study."—"Talks with My Boys" is a collection of facts, anecdotes, and moral lessons delivered as occasion required during a long experience in the school-room. While containing many items which are in themselves attractive and useful, the book is too much like a condensed, hap-hazard cyclopedia to be interesting. It would perhaps find its greatest usefulness in the reference library of other teachers as suggestive of "talks" to their pupils.

The ninth edition of Richard Grant White's, "Words and their Uses" has been issued. The plain common-sense and practical treatment of the subject in this book contributes largely to its usefulness. Students of good English cannot do better than add it to their libraries.

*1. Right-Life. By Joseph A. Seiss, D.D. L.L.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. 1886. Price \$1.50.

†2. Hold up Your Heads, Girls! By Annie H. Ryder. Boston: D. Lothrop and Company. 1886. Price \$1.00.

‡3. Talks with My Boys. By William A. Mowry, A.M., Ph.D. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1886. Price \$1.00.

§ Words and their Uses, Past and Present. A Study of the English Language. By Richard Grant White. Ninth edition. Revised and enlarged. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. 1885.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Commentary on the Old Testament. D.D. Whedon, L.L.D., Editor. New York: Phillips & Hunt. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. 1886. Price, \$2.25.

First Steps in Latin. By R. F. Leighton, Ph.D. Boston: Ginn & Company. 1886.

Manual of Parliamentary Practice. By Luther S. Cushing. Revised by Edmund L. Cushing. Boston: Thompson, Brown & Company.

Selections from Latin Authors for Sight-Reading. By E. T. Tomlinson. Boston: Ginn & Company. 1886.

A Harmony of the Four Gospels in English. By Edward Robinson, D.D. L.L.D. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. 1886. Price \$1.50.

Teacher's Hand-Book of Psychology. By James Sully, M. A. New York: D. Appleton and Company. 1886.

Elementary Political Economy. By A. B. Meservey, Ph.D. Boston: Thompson, Brown, & Co.

Anger: Its Nature, Causes, and Cure. By Rev. W. H. Poole, L.L.D. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. 1886. Price, 60c.

Charles Darwin; His Life and Work. By Grant Allen. New York: J. Fitzgerald. Double number, 30c.

Essays, Speculative and Practical. By Herbert Spencer. New York: J. Fitzgerald. Price, 15c.

Scientific Aspects of Some Familiar Things. By W. H. Williams, F. R. A., F. C. S. New York: J. Fitzgerald. Price, 15c.

Fetichism: A Contribution to Anthropology and the History of Religion. By Fitz Schultz, Dr. Phil. New York: J. Fitzgerald. Double number. Price 30c.

Anthropology. By Daniel Wilson, L.L.D. With an Appendix on Archaeology. By E. B. Taylor, F. R. S. New York: J. Fitzgerald. Price, 15c.

The Descent of Man, and Selection in Relation to Sex. By Charles Darwin. With Illustrations. New York: J. Fitzgerald. Price, 15c.

A Text Book of Inorganic Chemistry. By Prof. von Richter. Translated by Edgar F. Smith. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 1885. Price, \$2.00.

The Midnight Cry. A Novel. By Jane Marsh Parker. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company.

An Introduction to the Study of Shakespeare and Milton. Illustrated. Boston: Boston School Supply Co.

A Daughter of Fife. By Amelia E. Barr. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company. 1886. Price, \$1.00.

Probation and Punishment. By Rev. S. M. Vernon, D.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1886. Price, \$1.25.

Gallagher & Shaw's new Game of Temperance Physiology. Scottsdale, Pa.: Gallagher & Shaw, Publishers. 1886. Price, \$1.00.

An Abridgment of Kents' Commentaries on American Law. By Eben Francis Thompson. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886. Price \$2.50.

A Timid Brave. By William Justin Harsha. New York: Funk & Wagnalls. 1886.

Kitty's Conquest. By Charles King, U. S. A. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1884. Price \$1.00.

Art Recreations a Guide to Decorative Art. Edited by Marion Kemble, Boston: S. W. Tilton & Co.

Doom! An Atlantic Episode. By Justin H. McCarthy, M. P. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1886. Price 25c.

Lord Beaconsfield's Correspondence With His Sister. New York: Harper & Brothers. Price 25c.

The Elements of Chemical Arithmetic. By J. Milnor Coit, Ph.D. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1886.

Dr. Cullis and His Work. Edited by Rev. W. H. Daniels. Boston and New York: Willard Tract Repository.

The Simplicity That is in Christ. Sermons to the Woodland Church, Philadelphia. By Leonard Woolsey Bacon. New York: Funk & Wagnalls. 1886.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

The Question Table has met with a hearty endorsement from the readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Hundreds of sets of answers to the lists of questions have been received, and a large number of miscellaneous questions have been sent. Two or three words of explanation may facilitate matters. In sending answers it is unnecessary to write out the questions, the numbers given with the answers are quite sufficient. All answers are examined and filed. Sets of answers received from circles will be so recorded in the magazine. In pronunciation Webster is our authority. Questions sent by readers will be taken up as rapidly as our space will admit. In voting on opinions, the result will not be recorded until the second month following the insertion of the subject. Our readers are at liberty to send in questions on which they would like an expression of opinion. In sending questions it is advisable to state in what connection they were found or by what suggested.

We are gratified to find that so many circles are responding to The Question Table begun in the April issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Answers to the questions in that number have been received from the following circles:

Spiral, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA; Longfellow Circle, NEW ORLEANS, LOUISIANA; Marietta Circle, MARIETTA, OHIO; the Inglesides, WHITE RIVER JUNCTION, VERMONT; The Inquirers, SAUGERTIES, NEW YORK; James Circle, BROOKLYN, NEW YORK; Circle of BLUE EARTH CITY, MINNESOTA; Elwin Circle, ELWIN, PENNSYLVANIA; Crescent Circle, BIRMINGTON, CONNECTICUT; Periclesian Circle, ARCOLA, ILLINOIS; Elgena Circle, MT. LEBANON, NEW YORK; Laurel Ridge Chapter, UNIONTOWN, PENNSYLVANIA; Laconia Circle, GREENFIELD, INDIANA; Chippewas, EAU CLAIRE, WISCONSIN.

TWENTY-FIVE QUESTIONS SUGGESTED BY "IN HIS NAME."

1. What name was given to Lyons when Gaul was a Roman province?
2. When was the manufacture of silk introduced into Lyons?
3. When was Lyons annexed to France?
4. For what offense was the city at one time doomed to destruction?
5. What Roman emperors were born in Lyons?
6. What two Frenchmen were executed in Lyons in the Place des Terreaux?
7. Who was the founder of the sect of the Waldenses?
8. By what name were the Waldenses known during the life of their founder?
9. What English rulers interceded for the Waldenses during their persecutions?
10. What was the motto of the Crusaders?
11. Who was the most famous of the caliphs of Bagdad?
12. What two leaders during the Crusades were crowned as King of Jerusalem?
13. When did the empire of the Saracens close?
14. Who was the founder of the order of Franciscans?
15. What is the date of Assumption Day?
16. At what famous battle did Saladin overthrow the Christian army and take the King of Jerusalem captive?
17. What city in the possession of Saladin capitulated to Richard Cœur de Lion after a siege of two years?
18. At what battle did Saladin send his own horse to Richard?
19. Previous to their final defeat which one of the Crusades was most disastrous to the Christians?
20. In what did the science or art of chivalry have its origin?

21. Who said he would sell London itself if he could find a buyer?
22. During a reign of ten years how much time did Richard I. spend in England?
23. What body of soldiery conquered the Christians in the last battle of the Crusades?
24. What were the two principal military orders during the Crusades?
25. What was the greatest benefit accruing to Europe from the Crusades?

TWENTY-FIVE QUESTIONS ON POLITICAL ECONOMY.

1. What is the difference between political economy and politics?
2. Could the term "Catalactics" be properly substituted for that of "political economy"?
3. What is the earliest known treatise on an economic subject?
4. What book bearing on this subject did Plato write?
5. Who first used the term political economy?
6. Why was any wide development of the science of political economy impossible among the Greeks and Romans?
7. With the writers of what nation did systematic political economy have its origin?
8. Who wrote the first work bearing the title of political economy?
9. What was the policy advocated by the "Mercantile School" of political economists?
10. What was the theory advocated by the "Agricultural System" of economy?
11. In what did the system introduced by Adam Smith differ from these two systems?
12. What is the "Malthusian doctrine"?
13. With what noted doctrine is the name of Ricardo always associated?
14. What do modern political economists regard as the source of wealth?
15. What is meant by the expression "Political economy is the science which treats of the three W's"?
16. Can mortgages, bonds, and stocks be rightly regarded as a part of the wealth of a nation?
17. What is the difference between a tool and a machine?
18. Would the invention of still more deadly weapons of warfare be a blessing or a curse to the world?
19. Looked at from the stand-point of political economy does not the provision of funds for the support of the poor have an injurious effect?
20. At the present time has capital or labor the brighter prospect for the future?
21. What is your opinion on making eight hours a working day?
22. Who is the leading political economist in Yale College?
23. When and where were the Knights of Labor organized?
24. What leading nations have adopted the free trade policy.
25. What is the legal term applied to the system of land ownership which prevails in the United States?

TWENTY-FIVE QUESTIONS ON ELECTRICITY.

1. What is the derivation of the word electricity?
2. Who was the inventor of the name electricity?
3. How did Thales account for the property possessed by amber of attracting light bodies to itself when rubbed?
4. Who discovered the electric property of repulsion?
5. Who was the first to receive an electric shock?
6. Who discovered the effect of sharp points in conductors?
7. Who was the first one who met his death while experimenting with electricity.
8. Who invented the electrical kite.
9. What causes the prolonged sound of the thunder?
10. In what publication was the invention of the lightning-rod announced?
11. Is there less danger from lightning to a house in which the fires are lighted, or to one in which they are all out?
12. In what mineral was the phenomenon to which the name of pyroelectricity was given first discovered?
13. Why was galvanism so called?
14. What was the circumstance of the discovery of galvanism?
15. Will an iron bar change its shape on being magnetized?
16. Of diamagnetic substances which is most strongly repelled?
17. Who declared that he would not receive another electric shock for the crown of France?
18. What river in the United States was the first to be crossed by an electric current?
19. When, where, and by whom, was the first submarine cable laid?
20. What is Faradism?
21. In what one of Addison's writings does he give an account of a chimerical correspondence between two friends, which seemed to foreshadow the electric telegraph?
22. Between what two cities was the first telegraph line constructed?
23. What is meant by telpherage, and where was a telpher line first put in successful operation?
24. What is Mr. Edison's latest invention in inductive telegraphy?
25. What is that branch of medical science called which treats of the application of electricity as a curative agent?

MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS.

1. Why can not a citizen of Washington D. C. vote for the President of the United States?

2. Who wrote, "All is lost save honor"?
3. What was the origin of the phrase "A Roland for an Oliver"?
4. Why is September 24, 1869, known as Black Friday?
5. If a squirrel goes around a tree, on the opposite side of which is a hunter, who goes around the same just as fast, but does not see the squirrel, *does the hunter go around the squirrel?*
6. What ruins are referred to as twenty degrees North of Uxmal?
7. Who was called "the Roman Hercules"?
8. Who was styled "the buckler of Rome"?
9. Who was called "his country's sword"?
10. Who was the most ancient architect, artist, and engraver, of note, in history?
11. Who was the first leader of Ireland?
12. What was the origin of the "Order of the garter"?
13. What is the symbol of the order?
14. When, by whom, and for what reason, was the first of the year changed from March to January?
15. Why is the Westminster School under ancient charter obligation to present annually, about Christmas time, some select Latin play?
16. What queen poisoned herself to avoid the insults of the Roman general?
17. What queen was brought to Rome in chains of gold?
18. What doctrine was taught at Rome toward the close of the Republic?
19. Why was the Coliseum so called?
20. During what centuries were the greatest enormities practiced, resulting in the greatest loss of life?
21. What is meant by "the Venus of the Palatine"?
22. Who was called the "Height of Rome," and by whom?
23. What two important cities were destroyed the same year, and by whom were they rebuilt?
24. What is space?
25. Is there any heat in moon-light?
26. Does the moon exert any influence on animal or vegetable life?
27. Who was called "the Divine Pagan"?
28. What was meant by "a procession of ancestors"?
29. What king perished in the water on horse-back?
30. What is the origin of the proverb "The dark horse is sure to win"?
31. How often and under what emperors was the Roman empire divided, and afterward reunited?
32. How many secessions took place during the years of the Roman Republic?
33. What state in the American Union grants no divorce?
34. Who was regarded the first Christian emperor?
35. Is the evidence of Constantine's conversion to Christianity satisfactory?
36. At what period in his life was he admitted by baptism, to membership in the church?
37. What was the older name of Rome which it was death to pronounce?

QUESTIONS ON PARLIAMENTARY PRACTICE.

PREPARED BY THE REV. T. B. NEELY, D. D.

1. What are tellers?
2. How is a division with tellers conducted?
3. What is meant by taking the yeas and nays?
4. How is a ye and nay vote conducted?
5. May a member change his vote?
6. Must every member vote?
7. When are members not permitted to vote?
8. May a member be excused from voting?
9. On what questions cannot a member be excused from voting?
10. What is meant by unanimous consent, and when may this form be used?
11. What is meant by voting by ballot?
12. Is it proper to have the secretary cast the ballot for the meeting?
13. Is electing by acclamation good form?
14. When may the presiding officer vote?

QUERIES ON WORDS.

1. What is the primary meaning of *urbanity*?
2. Why does Webster give the same meaning to *embogue* and *disembogue*?
3. When should *like* be used, when *as*, to denote similarity?
4. What is the origin of the name *Sorosis*?
5. What is the origin of *boycott*?
6. Which is correct, Mr. Higgins' house, or Mr. Higgins's? Used in the same way Mr. Nichols' or Mr. Nichols's, Mr. Holmes' or Mr. Holmes's, Mr. Niles' or Mr. Niles's?
7. What is the original meaning of *partially*?
8. In what sense is *prevent* used in the Psalms?
9. Give the meaning of (1) *London*, (2) *Adriatic*, (3) *Boston*.
10. What is the origin of *carnival*?

ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONS ON MODERN ITALY FOR MAY.

1. Odoacer.
2. Theodoric.
3. Robert Guiscard.
4. Frederick Barbarossa.
5. Within the fillet of gold was a small band of iron said to be beaten out of one of the nails from the Cross of Christ.
6. Sicily and Naples.
7. The Sicilian Vespers.
8. The residence of the popes at Avignon.
9. Benedict XIII.; Gregory XII.; and Alexander V. who was shortly succeeded by John XXIII.
10. Marignan, also written Marignano and Melegnano.
11. Adrian IV.
12. The right of giving possession of any office or benefice. Great dispute arose as to whom it belonged to bestow clerical offices, the popes or the emperors.
13. Henry IV. of Germany.
14. Lord Nelson.
15. Seventy.
16. San Marino.
17. Victor Emanuel I.
18. I Promesso Sposi.
19. Spain,

France, Germany, Austria. 20. Verona, Legnano, Peschiera, and Mantua. 21. Felice Orsini. 22. On February 18, 1861. By Cavour. 23. Father Alessandro Gavazzi. 24. Pope Alexander III. 25. Galileo and Gioberti.

ANSWERS TO TWENTY-FIVE QUESTIONS ON ITALIAN ART IN THE MAY ISSUE OF THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

1. Cimabue. 2. Vasari. 3. A perfect circle drawn with one sweep of his hand, and without a compass.
4. In the old Tuscan town stands Giotto's tower,
The lily of Florence blossoming in stone,—
A vision, a delight, and a desire,—
The Builder's perfect and centennial flower,
That in the night of ages bloomed alone,
But wanting still the glory of the spire.
5. Campo Santo. 6. Fra Giovanni da Fiesole, called Fra or Beato Angelico. 7. Paolo Uccelli. 8. Filippo Lippi. 9. Sandro Boticelli. 10. Ugly Tom. 11. Mantegna. 12. The Venetian. In Flanders. 13. In honor of Pope Sixtus IV. 14. Mosaic. 15. In the convent of Santa Maria delle Grazie, Milan. 16. Gentile Bellini. 17. Titian, Parmigiano, Raphael. 18. (1.) Andrea del Sarto. In the convent of SS. Annunziata, Florence. (2.) Raphael. In the gallery of the Brera, Milan. (3.) Raphael. In the tribune of the Uffizi Palace, Florence. 19. South Kensington Museum. 20. Marriage at Cana. 21. The two generations of painters which began early in the fifteenth century, and include the names representing the highest development of the art. 22. For a tomb for Pope Julian II. In the church of S. Pietro in Vinculo, Rome. 23. (1.) Entombment of Christ, by Raphael; Danae, by Correggio; Cumæan Sibyl, by Domenichino. (2.) Raphael's Madonna della Seggiola, Madonna del Gran-duca, and Madonna del Baldachino, Titian's Bella, Murillo's Madonna, and Canova's statue of Venus. (3.) The Frescoes of Raphael and Michael Angelo; Raphael's Transfiguration and Coronation of the Virgin; Domenichino's Communion of St. Jerome; Guido Reni's Martyrdom of St. Peter; Michael Angelo's Entombment; several works by Titian; Adoration of the Magi, by the school of Perugino; the Apollo Belvidere; Laocoön; Torso; Meleager. 24. A school seeking to unite the excellencies of all the great masters. 25. (1.) In the Rospigliosi Palace, Rome. (2.) In the Vatican, Rome. (3.) In the church of Santa Croce, Florence.

ANSWERS TO TWENTY QUESTIONS ON ROBERT BROWNING AND HIS POEMS.

1. 74. 2. Paracelsus. 3. London University. 4. Elizabeth Barrett. 5. A stanza from Elizabeth Barrett Browning's poem, "Lady Geraldine's Courtship."

"Or from Browning some *pomegranate* which, if cut deep down the middle, Shows a heart within, blood tinctured, of a veined humanity."

6. Italy. 7. A large part of his life has been spent there. 8. Raphael, Michael Angelo, Andrea del Sarto, Fra Lippo. 9. No. 10. In the ninth stanza of "Echelos." 11. The power of prayer. 12. Wordsworth. 13. Rudel to the Lady of Tripoli. 14. As a figure for the discoverer and revealer of beauty in nature. 15. In the first stanza of "One Word More." 16. A German musician and composer. (1749-1814.) 17. "He draws his characters from the East and West, from Greece, Italy, Palestine, France, England, Bagdad, America and Russia, history, fanciful imagination—kings, peasants, revolutionary leaders, poor factory girls, mystic dreamers, gay cavaliers, gallant soldiers, Jews, noble and base; musicians, poets, painters, saints, heroes, reformers, heretics. From every passion of man, noble or debased, which can live; every love declared or undeclared, requited and unrequited, doubt and all the virtues, he draws; the hopes and fears of man, of time and eternity, he takes of all his colors for the scenery and the figures in his dramas."—*Canon Farrar*. 18. Drama and sermon. 19. Canon Farrar. 20. "Browning is essentially the poet of hope. None of his poems end in despair. Browning is pre-eminently the poet of conscience, of love, and of religion. Better than any poet that ever lived, Browning is the poet and the anatomist of love; not only of the lover's love, but of the patriot's love, the philanthropists love, and the Christian love."

ANSWERS TO MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS.

1. Vermont. 2. Pacific Ocean. 3. A capital letter. 4. No. It should be sitting hen. 5. It means the government. (See Littell's Living Age, No. 2, 146, p. 363.) 6. Washington. 7. Stony Point. 8. Mary Stuart. 9. It took its rise from the thought that "a sovereign is not responsible for the acts of his ministers; whatever wrong is done the administrative government must be held responsible for." 10. King-fearer, or one who holds kings in dread. The latter part of the word is from the same root as the latter part of *hydrophobia*. In that sense it can be made to mean a king-hater. 11. In Nuremberg in 1457, called the *Gazette*. 12. September 25, 1690, from the London Coffee House, Boston. 13. Afterward. 14. Yes. But if the English pronunciation of Latin is adopted, all difficulty disappears. 15. The first person singular of the indicative mode.

ANSWERS TO "WHO WROTE?"—IN MAY ISSUE.

1. Eugamon of Cyrene. 2. Pomponius Mela. 3. Edward Young in "Night Thoughts," Canto I. Line 393. 4. Jeremy Belknap, 1792. 5. Edward Jenkins. 6. Alexander Pope, in "Essay on Man," Epistle IV. line 247. 7. Supposed to be Sir Philip Francis. 8. Mrs. Elizabeth Rundle Charles. 9. Max Schneckenburger. 10. Oliver Goldsmith in Line 172 of "The Traveller."

SPECIAL NOTES.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN for April, the price of the full season ticket of the Chautauqua Assembly was given by mistake as \$4.00 instead of \$5.00.

An illustrated eight-page folder containing full information concerning rates, board, and transportation to and from Chautauqua may be had by applying to W. A. Duncan, Syracuse, New York.

IMPORTANT NOTICE.—A movement for the union of all Local Circles in Philadelphia, Pa., has been started. Notice thereof and instructions for election of delegates were sent to as many Local Circles as are registered at Plainfield, N. J. A most enthusiastic meeting of delegates was held at 1604 Vine St., Philadelphia, on Friday evening, May 7. Sixteen circles responded to the call. The work accomplished was chiefly a report of individual delegates, the statement of their views and opinions, and the appointment of a Committee on Organization. The interest and determination shown by those present was very surprising and gratifying, and bespeaks abundant success. It is proposed to form a union of circles, have a local assembly, and as much

more of scientific, literary, and social enjoyment as may be mutually agreed upon. We desire every circle or individual reader, in or out of the city, interested in the enterprise, to send name and address to Cor. Sec., 1604 Vine St., Philadelphia, Pa.

The following names have been added to the roll of graduates of the Class of 1885:

Huckle, Thos. G.	-	-	-	-	Michigan.
Morse, Mrs. Sarah E.	-	-	-	-	Massachusetts.
Bacon, Mrs. Francis E.	-	-	-	-	New York.
Doyle, Ella May	-	-	-	-	New York.
Nunnemaker, Laura J.	-	-	-	-	Virginia.
Sterrett, Sarah M.	-	-	-	-	Minnesota.
Artman, Mrs. Clarissa	-	-	-	-	Iowa.
Brokaw, Mary Ella	-	-	-	-	Japan.
Chamberlin, Mrs. Kate	-	-	-	-	Iowa.
Pinkerton, Edgar McDill	-	-	-	-	Ohio.

CHAUTAUQUA FOR 1886.

The Chautauqua "season" will open with a ten days' CHURCH CONGRESS, during which Dr. John Hall, of New York, will deliver a course of ten lectures on the general subject of "The Pulpit and the People." Dr. J. B. Wentworth, Sam Jones, Dr. E. G. Taylor, Dr. Geo. P. Hays, and many others will take part in this Church Congress, in connection with which there will be eight "conferences" on subjects related to church and pastoral work. Dr. John Hall will preach on Sunday, July 4, and on Sunday, July 11.

A special ticket will be prepared for these ten days, and it is earnestly hoped that many ministers will take advantage of this the finest opportunity that has been offered them by the Chautauqua management. The rates for board will be made as reasonable as possible, and every inducement offered to clergymen to come to Chautauqua during the Church Congress.

On July 10 the Educational Departments of the Chautauqua season will be opened.

THE CHAUTAUQUA TEACHERS' RETREAT.

A three weeks' meeting of secular school-teachers, every July, for lectures, illustrative exercises, biographical studies, scientific experiments, etc., combining with the recreative delights of the summer vacation the stimulating and quickening influence of the summer school. Many hundreds of teachers gather here every season, and pursue courses of pedagogical study under the direction of Prof. J. W. Dickinson, of Boston, and a corps of able instructors.

The Faculty of the "Retreat" for 1886 includes the names of sixteen professors in as many different departments. The regular Teachers' Retreat ticket, which includes admission to the grounds from July 10 to 31, entitles the holder to the following privileges:—

All general exercises in the Amphitheater, including lectures, concerts, recitals, and entertainments during the sessions of the Retreat.

Fourteen lessons in Pedagogy.

Fourteen lessons in practical application of Pedagogical Science.

Fourteen lessons in Experimental Science.

Fourteen exercises in critical study of Shakspeare.

Two conferences on the Eminent Educators "Ascham" and "Arnold."

Five Tourists' conferences on the "Ideal Foreign Tour."

One exposition of method in Penmanship.

One exposition of method in Phonography.

One exposition of method in Stenographic Reporting."

Two expositions of method in Elocution.

Two admissions to each of the departments in the Schools of Language.

Ten half hour drills in School Calisthenics.

The Chautauqua Teachers' Retreat is designed chiefly to illustrate the latest and best educational methods. The philosophy of teaching is considered in all its aspects, and practical illustrations are given of teaching language, arithmetic, geography, history, civil polity, mineralogy, botany, chemistry, zoölogy, physics, hygiene, etc.

The department of "experimental science" is very complete, and offers special attractions to teachers who desire to become acquainted with simple experiments and illustrations which may be introduced into the school-room.

The Chautauqua Teachers' Retreat has this advantage over all similar summer meetings, from this fact that not only are the methods and instructions the very best, and most thorough, but in connection with them there is a general program of great interest and profit: brilliant lectures, attractive concerts, pleasant excursions, novel entertainments, spelling matches, pronouncing matches, quotation matches, receptions, and all kinds of delightful recreative features.

THE CHAUTAUQUA IDEAL FOREIGN TOUR.

This is a plan by which a trip through some foreign country is outlined, and at a series of conferences the itinerary of this trip is discussed by people who have traveled over the routes in question; inquiries on the part of the foreign tourist are answered; every possible means is employed to give the foreign tourists an idea of what continental travel is like; what is the character of the places visited; the manners and customs of the people of the different countries; styles in architecture; and the treasures in art. Parlor soirees, stereopticon-illustrated lectures, and a large and well-selected library of foreign travel, with a variety of engravings, photographs, etc., add greatly to the profit and enjoyment of the Chautauqua Foreign Tourists.

The "tour" this year extends through the "British Isles,"

and includes a careful study of English castles, cathedrals and universities.

THE CHAUTAUQUA SCHOOLS OF LANGUAGE.

The Chautauqua Schools of Language will open July 10, and under the care of fifteen able instructors classes will be organized in French, German, English, Latin, Greek, Sanscrit, and Hebrew. The "Natural Method" of instruction will be closely adhered to in most of these classes. The German and French Departments will furnish instruction to beginners, to intermediate, and to advanced, scholars. The Department of English includes a careful study of the English and Anglo-Saxon, with critical readings of English classical literature. This Department is one of the most important of the Chautauqua Schools of Language, and is increasing rapidly in popularity.

The Department of Latin, Greek, and Sanscrit offers a most complete plan of work. Classes will be organized in Cæsar, Cicero, Tacitus, Virgil, Terence, Horace, Cornelius, Nepos, etc., in Latin; and in Greek, in Xenophon, Herodotus, Plato, Homer, and Sophocles. These classes will not only furnish instruction to students, but will illustrate the best methods of teaching the ancient classics. The professors represent some of the best institutions of learning in the country, and the summer students will find contact with them most valuable and inspiring. The instruction provided is so complete that college students who desire to make careful preparation for their fall examinations will do well to take advantage of the Chautauqua Schools of Language, combining the work of vacation with the recreative elements which are to be found in great abundance.

In connection with the Chautauqua Schools, there is a Reference Library" and a "Reading Room." The leading German and French newspapers will be on file for the use of students in the Department of Modern Languages. Students of English will find a valuable collection of works on English literature, and especially of books relating to Shakspeare. There are also valuable reference books in Latin and Greek literature, and in archæology. The ticket entitling the holder to all the general exercises of the "Assembly," from July 10 to August 21, and to tuition in any of the regular departments is \$12.00.

The following are the

SPECIAL CLASSES,

which will be taught during the Teacher's Retreat, and of which persons may avail themselves by paying the additional fee for each:

Microscopy, Ten Lessons, \$ 2.00

Elocution, Four Classes, to continue six weeks: Juvenile,

General, Advanced, and Ministerial. For further particulars see announcement.

Penmanship, Ten Lessons (including Stationery), 2.50

Book-keeping, Ten Lessons (including Stationery), 3.00

Phonography, Twenty Lessons, 10.00

The Stenograph, Twenty Lessons, 10.00

The Type Writer, 5.00

Clay Modeling, per Lesson, 60

Calisthenics, Twenty Lessons, 5.00

Voice Culture, Ten Lessons, 1.00

Harmony, Ten Lessons, 1.00

Lessons upon the Organ and Piano, See Special Announcement.

Ten Lessons in Drawing and Perspective (one hour each), . . 5.00

Twelve Lessons in Painting (any branch) and Crayon work, (three hours each), 10.00

Single Lesson 1.00

Kindergarten, for Children under six years of age, for each pupil, Ten Sessions, 2.00

Spectators' tickets 25 cents each. For Fifteen Sessions, \$3.00.

A Normal course in Kindergarten instruction designed for teachers, and to be continued throughout the year by correspondence, will begin July 10, 1886. Terms for the year, \$10.00.

CHAUTAUQUA LECTURERS.

During July and August, Lectures will be delivered by the following prominent speakers:

The Rev. Dr. John Hall,	Prof. R. L. Cumnock,
The Rev. Dr. E. G. Taylor,	Prof. C. T. Winchester,
The Rev. Dr. Geo. P. Hays,	Prof. Lewis Stuart,
Sam Jones,	Prof. I. V. Flagler,
The Rev. Dr. J. B. Wentworth,	Prof. Edward Olsen,
Dr. T. W. Bicknell,	Dr. J. W. Dickinson,
Dr. W. H. Milburn,	The Rev. Dr. Parks,
Prof. Hjalmer A. Edgren, Ph.D.	C. E. Bolton, Esq.,
Dr. J. E. King,	The Rev. Dr. D. A. Goodsell,
The Rev. D. H. Knowles,	Frank Beard, Esq.,
Dr. T. Hanlon,	The Rev. Dr. E. E. Hale,
The Rev. O. W. Scott,	Dr. James H. Carlisle,
The Rev. J. D. Beeman,	The Rev. Dr. J. T. Duryea,
Dr. T. De Witt Talmage,	Chas. Barnard, Esq.,
George Riddle, Esq.,	H. H. Ragan, Esq.,
The Rev. A. E. Winship,	Mrs. Mary A. Livermore,
The Rev. Dr. W. F. Warren,	Dr. W. R. Harper,
Miss Frances E. Willard,	The Rev. Dr. J. T. Edwards,
A. P. Burbank, Esq.,	The Rev. Jahu De Witt Miller,
Robert R. Dougherty, Esq.,	Will Carleton, Esq.,
Prof. B. P. Bowne,	Prof. Wm. G. Sumner,
The Rev. Dr. J. M. Buckley,	The Rev. Dr. J. W. Lee,
The Rev. Dr. J. C. Hartzell,	The Rev. Dr. J. H. Vincent.
George W. Cable, Esq.,	And many others.

MUSIC.

The arrangements for music the coming season at Chautauqua are unusually complete. The following preliminary announcement will suggest the general character and extent of the musical program:—

During July, Prof. Walton N. Ellis, of Brooklyn, N. Y., will direct the chorus, which, together with prominent soloists, will give classic concerts.

Prof. I. V. Flagler, of Auburn, N. Y., will give a series of ten classic organ recitals.

From July 1 to 15, the "Courtney Ladies Quartet," of New York City will be in attendance.

From July 21 to August 3, the Amherst College Glee-Club will be represented at Chautauqua by a double-quartet accompanied by a warbler. The glee-club is one of the most popular in the country.

From July 21, to August 31, Mrs. Juvia C. Hull, of New York, will be leading soprano.

From August 1 to 15, the chorus will be under the control of Prof. C. C. Case.

From August 3 to 10, Signor Giuseppe Vitale, the celebrated violinist, and Signor Fanelli, the harpist, will assist at the general concerts.

From August 10 to 14, the famous "Rock-Band," consisting of the Till Family Quartet, who play upon a variety of instruments including the Rock-Band.

From August 16 to 30, Prof. W. F. Sherwin, of the New England Conservatory of Music, Boston, will have charge of the chorus.

From August 13 to 28, the "Schubert Quartet," which gave such universal satisfaction last season, will be again in attendance.

The other soloists for the season will be announced in an early number of the *Assembly Herald*.

C. L. S. C. RECOGNITION-DAY.

On Wednesday, August 18, the graduates of the Class of

1886 will receive public recognition by passing the "Golden Gate," and "The Arches" into the "Hall in the Grove," and will afterward be addressed in the great Amphitheater by Dr. James H. Carlisle, President of Wofford College, Spartansburg, S. C., the new counsellor of the C. L. S. C. Addresses will be given by other counsellors of the C. L. S. C. in the afternoon, when the diplomas will be given to all the Graduating Class present. This is a great day for members of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, and an attractive program fills the week, of which this day is the center. For full particulars and detailed program, containing dates, subjects of lectures, and the many various entertainments, address W. A. Duncan, Esq., Syracuse, N. Y.

The following is a list of

RED LETTER DAYS AT CHAUTAUQUA:

Monday, July 5,

Celebration of "INDEPENDENCE DAY."

Saturday, July 10,

Opening "C. T. R." and "C. S. I.," and inauguration of the "CHAUTAUQUA TEACHERS' READING UNION."

Saturday, July 17,

Excursion to "PANAMA ROCKS."

Saturday, July 24,

Excursion to NIAGARA FALLS.

Wednesday, July 28,

"SEMINARY DAY," meeting of the principals of the Methodist Episcopal Seminaries.

Saturday, July 31,

"TYPE-WRITING CONTEST DAY."

Valuable prize offered.

Saturday, July 31,

Organization of the "CHAUTAUQUA PHONOGRAPHIC LEAGUE."

Monday, August 2,

Anniversary of the "C. M. I." (Chaut. Miss. Institute.)

Tuesday, August 3,

Opening of the THIRTEENTH "ASSEMBLY."

Friday, August 6,

"LOOK-UP-LEGION," "C. Y. F. R. U." &c., day.

Sunday, August 8,

"MEMORIAL DAY." (Deceased Chautauquans.)

Wednesday, August 11,

"DENOMINATIONAL CONGRESS" DAY.

Thursday, August 12,

"BAPTIST" DAY. "ILLUMINATED FLEET."

Saturday, August 14,

"C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL" DAY.

Wednesday, August 18,

"RECOGNITION DAY." (C. L. S. C. Commencement.)

Thursday, August 19,

"COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION" DAY. (S. S. Normal.)

Friday, August 20,

"HARVEST" DAY. "C. T. C. C."

Saturday, August 21,

"GRAND ARMY" DAY.

Tuesday, August 24,

"NATIONAL TEMPERANCE" DAY.

For full particulars concerning railway rates, admission tickets, board, and detailed program, address W. A. Duncan, Esq., Syracuse, N. Y., up to June 25, afterward at Chautauqua, Chautauqua Co., N. Y.